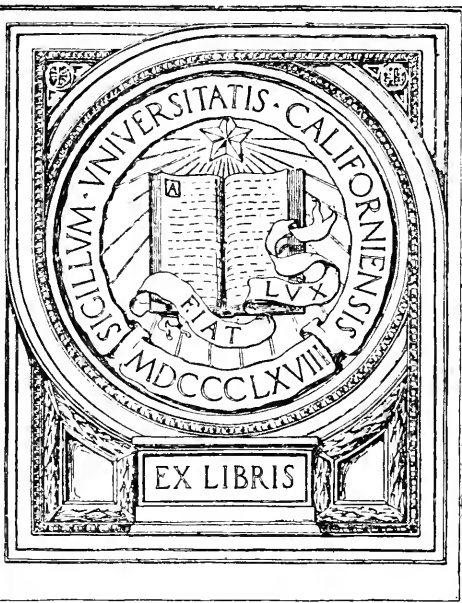


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A GRAMMAR  
OF THE  
IRISH LANGUAGE

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY

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# P R E F A C E.



THOUGH this text-book is small, it comprises, I believe, everything necessary—so far as grammar is concerned—for a student of modern Irish. I have not treated at all of the ancient forms of the language; and I have excluded everything in the shape of dissertation: the grammar of the modern Irish language, and no more, is here set forth, in words as few and simple as possible. I have not suggested any changes either in spelling or in grammatical forms, or attempted innovation of any kind: this is a grammar of the language as it actually exists in the works of our best writers. All the illustrative examples are quotations from standard Irish writings; but though I retain the references, I have not given them in the grammar, as they would encumber the book, and impede, rather than facilitate the learner. I may mention here, however, that the works from which the examples are chiefly taken, are, those of Keating, the publications of the Ossianic Society, “The Three Sorrowful Stories of Erin” (viz., “The Fate of the Children of Usna,” “The Fate of the Children of Lir,” and “The Fate of the Children of Tureun”), and occasionally “The Annals of the Four Masters.” The language of the various works published by the Archaeological and Celtic Societies is generally too antiquated to be quoted in a grammar of modern Irish. I have all through given word-for-word translations of the examples: free translations would have been more pleasant to read, but would have added considerably to the learner’s difficulty. In the last Part—“Idioms”—I have given a popular rather than a scientific explanation of the principal idioms of the language. Nothing like this is to be found in any other Irish Grammar; and I believe that the learner who masters it will be saved much labor and perplexity. There are several other Irish Grammars, but none low enough in price to be within reach of the many. Whoever wishes to study the Irish language in its ancient as well as in its modern forms, must procure O’Donovan’s Grammar; without this great work no one can attain a thorough knowledge of the language. I may also mention “The College Irish Grammar,” by the Rev. Ulick J. Canon Bourke, in which there is a great amount of miscellaneous information on the language, proverbs, and popular literature of Ireland. The labors of the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language have lately given a great impetus to Celtic studies. The Society has produced three admirable little elementary books (the First, Second and Third Irish Books),—all drawn up by the members themselves on the plan of the elementary works of Smith, Arnold, Ahn, &c. But the want of a very cheap and simple text-book on Irish Grammar has been much felt; and this Grammar has been written to supply the want. I have written it with the cognisance of the Council of the Society, of which I am myself a member. It was at first intended that the name of the Society should appear on the title-page along with my own name, and a resolution to that effect was passed by the Council. But I found some difficulty as to the exact words, and I have accordingly contented myself with mentioning the matter here. I acknowledge with thanks that I have received valuable assistance from several gentlemen of the Society, who read every word of my proofs, suggesting various corrections, alterations, and improvements. One member in particular, Mr. John Fleming, of Rathgormack, in the county Waterford, read all my manuscript in the first instance, and all the proof-sheets afterwards. Mr. Fleming’s assistance was invaluable to me, for he possesses an intimate knowledge of modern Irish Grammar, language, and literature, and, what is still better, much sound sense and clear, critical judgment.

DUBLIN, *November, 1878.*

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# SCHOOL

## IRISH GRAMMAR.

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### PART I.

#### ORTHOGRAPHY.

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#### CHAPTER I.

##### SOUNDS.

##### I. LETTERS.

1. The Irish alphabet consists of eighteen letters, of which thirteen are consonants and five are vowels.

2. The five vowels are *a*, *e*, *í*, *o*, *u*; of which *a*, *o*, *u* are broad, and *e*, *í* are slender.

3. Each consonant (with the exceptions mentioned below) has a broad and a slender sound. When a consonant comes immediately after or before a broad vowel, it has its broad sound: when it comes after or before a slender vowel, it has its slender sound. But this does not apply to *b*, *f*, *h*, *m*, *p*, each of which has one sound only, whether joined with a broad vowel or a slender vowel.

4. Vowels are either long or short. A long vowel is usually marked by an accent; as *bá**n*, white: a short vowel has no mark; as *m**a**c*, a son.

5. The Irish vowels, like the English, have an obscure sound in unaccented syllables, of which it is not necessary to take further notice here.

6. The following are the usual sounds of the Irish letters, so far as they can be represented by English letters:—

7. Those marked with asterisks are only imperfectly represented in sound by the corresponding English letters: those not so marked are represented perfectly or nearly so.

8. The sounds of the marked letters must be learned by ear: it is hardly possible to give in writing such a description of them as would enable a learner to utter them.

9. C is equal to *k*, yet when it comes before the diphthong *ao*, or the triphthong *aoi*, beginners find it very hard to sound it: *caol* (narrow) is neither *kail* nor *quail*, but something between; *caoín* (gentle) is neither *keen* nor *queen*, but something between

10. So also with *g*, which (broad and slender) is equal to *g* in *got* and *get*: yet *gaol* is hard for a beginner to utter, being neither *gail* nor *gwail*, but something between.

11. The Irish broad *δ* and *τ* bear the same relation to each other as the English *d* and *t*; that is, the first in each case is flat and soft, and the second sharp and hard. English *d* and *t* are sounded by placing the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth; Irish *δ* and *τ* by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish *δ* and *τ* may be described in another way: the two sounds of *th* in *those* and *thumb* are both *continuous*, the first flat, the second sharp. Now the two *explosive* sounds corresponding to these two continuous sounds (*i.e.*, with the tongue in the same position), are exactly the Irish *δ* and *τ*.

12. Broad *l* and *n* are sounded by placing the top of the tongue (not against the roof of the mouth as in case of English *l* and *n*, but) against the upper front teeth. Irish *δ* and *τ* are to English *d* and *t* as Irish *l* or *η* to English *l* or *n*.

13. Slender *μ* is the most difficult of all the Irish consonantal sounds; and learners, unless they have acquired it in youth, often fail to articulate it correctly, though the teacher may sound it over and over again for their imitation.

14. As *h* represents a mere breathing or aspiration, and not an articulate sound, and as it never begins a word, some writers exclude it from the letters, thus making seventeen instead of eighteen, as given here.

## TABLE OF SOUNDS.

Letters.		Vowel long or short.	Consonant broad or slender.	Irish sounds.	Corresponding English sounds.
Irish.	Eng.				
Ḃ Ḃ	a	long	—	lán	lawn, ball
Ḅ Ḅ	a	short	—	mac	hat or what
Ḇ Ḇ	b	—	—	ball	ban
Ḉ Ḉ	c	—	broad	cab	cob
Ḋ Ḋ	c	—	slender	cinn	king
* Ḍ Ḍ	d	—	broad	dall	those
* Ḑ Ḑ	d	—	slender	dian	cordial
Ḓ Ḓ	e	long	—	mé	date
Ḕ Ḕ	e	short	—	—	met
Ḗ Ḗ	f	—	—	finn	fin
Ḙ Ḙ	g	—	broad	gort	got
Ḛ Ḛ	g	—	slender	geir	get, gimlet
Ḕ Ḕ	h	—	—	a h-anam	hammer
Ḗ Ḗ	i	long	—	min	seen
Ḙ Ḙ	i	short	—	min	pin
* Ḑ Ḑ	l	—	broad	lón	lone
Ḓ Ḓ	l	—	slender	file	vermilion
* Ḕ Ḕ	m	—	—	mil	mill
* Ḗ Ḗ	n	—	broad	nor	none
Ḙ Ḙ	n	—	slender	nead	new
Ḑ Ḑ	o	long	—	mor	more
Ḓ Ḓ	o	short	—	dor	love, run
Ḕ Ḕ	p	—	—	poc	pore
Ḗ Ḗ	r	—	broad	rod	road
* Ḑ Ḑ	r	—	slender	cuir	clarion
Ḓ Ḓ	s	—	broad	sona	son
* Ḕ Ḕ	s	—	slender	shin	sheen
* Ḗ Ḗ	t	—	broad	tom	thumb
* Ḑ Ḑ	t	—	slender	teine	courteous
Ḓ Ḓ	u	long	—	múr	moor, rude
Ḕ Ḕ	u	short	—	muc	put, bull

15. The following are the native names of the Irish letters, but they need not be used by the learner. All or most of them are the names of trees:—*áilín*, *a*; *beir*, *b*; *coll*, *c*; *daire*, *d*; *eaða*, *e*; *feann*, *f*; *gort*, *g*; *ua*, *h*; *io*, *i*; *luir*, *l*; *muir*, *m*; *nuir*, *n*; *oir* or *onn*, *o*; *peir*-*bo*, *p*; *ruir*, *r*; *ruil*, *s*; *teine*, *t*; *úr*, *u*.

## II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., *ae*, *ao*, *eu*, *ia*, *ua*, *ai*, *ea*, *eí*, *eo*, *io*, *iú*, *oi*, *ui*; of which the first five are always long, and the remaining eight are sometimes long and sometimes short.

2. The following are the sounds of the five long diphthongs:—

3. *ae*, sounds like *ay* in *slay*; as *mae*, the moon, pronounced *ray*.

4. *ao*, in the southern half of Ir land, sounds nearly like *way*, and in the west and north-west something like *we*. Thus *maon*, a steward, is pronounced like *mwair* in the south, and like *mweer* in the west and north-west.

5. *eu* like *ai* in *lair*; as in *feup*, grass, pronounced *fair*.

6. *ia* like *ee* in *beer*; as in *ciap*, dark-colored, pronounced *keer*.

7. *ua* nearly like *oe* in *doer*; as in *Luan*, Monday, pronounced *l-o-un*.

8. The following are the sounds of the eight diphthongs that are sometimes long and sometimes short. When these diphthongs are long there is an accent over one of the vowels: when short there is no accent:—

9. *ai* long has an accent over the *a*, and sounds something like the *awi* in *drawing*; as in *cáin*, tribute, pronounced *caw-in*.

*ai* short is sounded something like the *a* in *valiant* or the *o* in *collier*; as in *maic*, good, whose sound is very nearly represented by *moh*.

In Ulster, *ai* short is pronounced like short *e* in *bell*; as in *aipoc*, restitution, which is pronounced *eshoc* in the north, and *ashoc* in the south and west.

10. *ea* long has an accent over the *e*, and sounds like *ea* in *bear*; thus *meán*, a finger, is pronounced *mare*.

*ea* short sounds like *ea* in *heart* (but shorter); as in *feap*, knowledge, pronounced *fuss*.

11. *eí* long has an accent over the *e*, and sounds like *ei* in *rein*; as *réim*, a course, pronounced *raim*.

*eí* short, like *e* in *sell*; as in *ceip*, a basket, sounded like *kesk*.

12. *eo* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded nearly like long English *o* with a slight sound of *y* before it; as in *ceól*, music, which will be correctly pronounced if a *k* sound is put before the word *yole*.

*eo* short nearly like *u* in *shut*, with *y* before it; as in *deoc*, drink.

*Note*.—This diphthong is short in only a very few words.

13. *io* long has an accent over the *i*, and sounds very like *ea* in *hear*; as in *fiön*, wine, pronounced *feen* or *fee-on*.

10 short, nearly like short *i*; as in *myrrh*, which has nearly the same sound as the first syllable of *mirror*.

14. *íú* long has an accent over the *u*, and has the same sound as the diphthongal English *u* in *tune*; as in *íú*, *wortay*, which is sounded exactly like *few*.

*íu* short is sounded like the *u* in *put*, with a *y* before it; as in *íuċ*, *wet*.

15. *óí* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded like the *oi* in *owing*; as in *óí*, a while, pronounced *fó-il*.

*oi* short like the *o* in *love*, with a very short *i* at the end; as in *coí*, the will.

16. *úí* long, with an accent over the *u*, is sounded like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *íúí*, the eye, pronounced *soo-il*.

*uí* long, with an accent over the *i*, has nearly the same sound as *we*; as in *buíde*, yellow, which is pronounced *bwee*.

*ui* short is like the *ui* in *quill*; as in *íuíreóċ*, a lark, pronounced *fíwishoge*.

### III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs, which are always long:—*aoí*, *eoí*, *íai*, *íui*, *uaí*.

2. *aoí* is sounded very like *we*, as in *íaoí*, wealth, pronounced *múeen*.

3. *eoí* is sounded like the *yoi* in the combination *yó-ing*; as in *íeoí*, flesh, which will be correctly pronounced if the sound of *f* is put before the combination *yó-il*.

4. *íai* is sounded like *eei* in *seeing*; as *íaiċ*, a physician.

5. *íui* like the *ewi* in *mewing*; as *íui*, gentle.

6. *uaí* like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *íuaí*, strike, which is sounded *boo-il*.

7. The preceding attempts to represent the sounds of the diphthongs and triphthongs are, in many cases mere approximations. The student must hear them pronounced; and in no other way is it possible to learn to sound them correctly.

### IV. VARIOUS SOUNDS.

1. *ā* and *o* before *m*, *nn*, *ll*, or *ñ*, in monosyllables, and often before *nc* and *nc*, are sounded in Munster like the *ou* in *foul*; as *cam*, crooked, and *coll*, hazel, pronounced *cóom* and *cóel*; and *ġleanġcān*, a small glen, pronounced *glounthaun*; and *o* before *ð* and *ġ* has often the same sound; as *íoġlaí*, learning, pronounced *fówhm*.

2. *āð* and *āġ* are often sounded like long English *i* in *fine*; as *íaðanc*, sight, pronounced *ry-ark*; *íaðart*, a fork, pronounced *lyre*; *íaðm*, a breach, pronounced *mime*.

3 The termination *ad* is pronounced in Connaught nearly the same as *oo*: thus *bualad*, striking, is pronounced *'booloo* in Connaught, but *boolu* in Munster.

4. In the combination *dl*, the *d* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *coblad*, sleep, pronounced *culla*.

5. In the combination *ln*, the *n* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *colna*, of a body, pronounced *culla*.

6. In the combination *dn*, the *d* is silent, and whole is sounded the same as *n* or *nn*; as *céadna*, the same, pronounced *kaina*.

7. Final *e* is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus *míne*, smoothness, is pronounced *meena*. In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in *croíde*, a heart, pronounced *cree*.

8. There are some Irish consonants which, when they come together in a word, do not coalesce in sound, so that when they are uttered a *very* short obscure vowel sound is heard between them.

This generally occurs in the case of two liquids, or a liquid and a mute. Thus *loip*, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not *lurg*, but *lurrug*. *Oealb*, a shape, is sounded, not *dalb*, but *dallav*; *reapb*, bitter, is sounded *sharrav*; *boib*, proud, is pronounced *burrub*; *col*, a sword, *cullug*, and so on. In Irish prosody, however, such words as these count as only one syllable.

In the English language no such difficulty exists in regard to most of these letters; they coalesce perfectly in sound, so that each of the above words would be a pure monosyllable.

## CHAPTER II.

### LETTER CHANGES.

#### I. ASPIRATION.

1. The term "aspiration" is used to express a certain change of sound suffered by some of the Irish consonants under certain grammatical conditions.

2. It is impossible to give a definition of aspiration that will correctly describe all the cases, inasmuch as the changes of sound vary in kind with the several consonants. In most cases the change caused by aspiration is one from an *explosive* to a *continuous* sound.

3. There are nine consonants which can be aspirated, namely, *b, c, d, f, g, m, p, r, t*; these are called mutable or aspirable consonants; the others are called immutable. The aspiration is denoted either by placing a point over the consonant, as *c'*; or by placing *h* after it, as *ch*.



4. The following are the sounds of the aspirated consonants so far as they can be represented by English letters:—

5. bh or b̌ is sounded sometimes like *v* and sometimes like *w*, and it often has a sound something between both; as a beaṇ, his wife, pronounced *a van*; ḡabal, a fork, pronounced *gowal*.

6. Ch broad, has a guttural sound which is not represented in English; but it is heard in the pronunciation of the word *lough*, (Irish, loč,) a lake.

Ch slender (*i.e.*, joined with a slender vowel) has a less guttural sound than č broad; as m̌ičall, folly, in which the č sound is only a little more guttural than *h* in *nee-heel*.

7. Oh and ḡ have the same sound. When slender, they are sounded like initial *y* in English; as a ḡeaṇ, his love, pronounced *a yan*. Oh and ḡ broad have a guttural sound which cannot be represented by English letters, though it is something like initial *y* or initial *w*; it stands to the guttural sound of broad č in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as f̌iaḡ, a deer, pronounced *fee a*.

But in south Munster the final ḡ is fully sounded, like *g* in *fig*; as Coṇcaṇḡ (dative of Coṇcaḡ, Cork), pronounced *curkig* in Munster, but *curkee* elsewhere.

8. Fh is always silent; thus a f̌ioṛ, his knowledge, is pronounced *a iss*; aṇ f̌eaḡḡḡ, the plover, pronounced *aṇ addogue*.

9. Wh is very nearly the same as b̌, viz., like *v* or *w*; as a m̌jaṛ, his dish, pronounced *a vee-as*.

10. Ph has the sound of *f*, as a p̌iaṇ, his pain, pronounced *a fee-an*.

11. Sh and ś are the same as *h*; as a śal, his heel, pronounced *a haul*; a śobaṛ, his well, pronounced *a hubber*.

## II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.\*

1. The possessive pronouns mo, my; do, thy; and a, his, as, pirate the first consonant of the next word: as mo bo, my cow; do čeaṇ, thy head; a ḡoṛṛ, his garden.

2. The article aspirates in the singular feminine, nominative and accusative;† as aṇ beaṇ, the woman. (See also page 23, paragraph 6, and page 24.)

\* These rules cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of Etymology. It must be borne in mind that they apply only to the aspirable or mutable consonants.

† Irish nouns have no inflection for the accusative (or objective) case; but it is often convenient to speak of nouns in the accusative, by which is meant the case where the noun is the object of a transitive verb, or sometimes of a preposition.

3. The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as *αἱ γῆραι*, of the garden.

NOTE.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter *ρ*. (See, also, page 23, paragraph 6; and page 34.)

4. In compound words, the initial consonant of the second word of the compound is aspirated (with a few exceptions): thus from *κεφαλή*, a head, and *βῆμα*, a garment, is formed *κεφαλὴ-βῆμα*, head-garment, or canopy. (See also page 36, paragraph 2).

5. The interjections *α* and *ὦ*, as signs of the vocative case, aspirate; as *α ἄνθρωπε*, O man.

6. An adjective agreeing with a noun has its initial consonant aspirated when the noun is nominative singular feminine, or genitive singular masculine, or vocative singular of both genders; and, according to O'Donovan, in the nominative plural masculine, when the noun ends in a consonant; as *βό βαλή*, a white cow; *καὶτ βαή*, of a white cat; *α ἄνθρωπος ὁ μέγας*, O great man; *α ἄνθρωπος ἡ ἡμέρα*, O mild woman; *καρὰντ βάνα*, white horses. (*δ* and *τ* are sometimes excepted: see page 36.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles *δο* and *α*; as *δο δέσμευαδ*, or *α δέσμευαδ*, to do; (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as *δο ἔστην*, he stood; (3) by the particles *μή*, not, and *μή*, if; as *μή βεῖδ*, she will not be; *μή ἔστην*, if he stands; (4), by the relative *α*, who, (expressed or understood); as *α ἄνθρωπος ὁ βλάπτει*, the person who strikes. (See also pages 57 and 59.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns; as *απὸ βάτου*, on top; *εἰς ὑψὺς*, to a summit; *παρὰ ζέον*, under affection.

### III ECLIPSIS.

1. A consonant is said to be eclipsed, or to suffer eclipsis, when its sound is suppressed, and the sound of another consonant, which is prefixed to it, substituted: thus in *η-δάν*, *δ* is eclipsed by *η*, and the whole word is pronounced *nawn*, whereas *δάν* is pronounced *dawn*. It is only at the beginning of words consonants are eclipsed.

2. The following eight consonants can be eclipsed:—*b, c, d, f, g, p, r, t*; the others cannot. Between the eclipsing and the eclipsed letter there is usually placed a *hyphen*, as *η-βάμδ*; but often they are put together without any separating mark, as *βρομτ*. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted by the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus, *α τταμδ* is the same as *α δ-ταμδ*, their bull

3. Each consonant has an eclipsing letter of its own.

4. *b* is eclipsed by *m*; as *a m-báird*, their bard, pronounced *a mawrd*.

5. *C* is eclipsed by *g*: as *a g-coll*, their hazel, pronounced *a gowl* or *a gull*.

6. *O* by *n*; as *a n-dor*, their bush, pronounced *a nuss*.

7. *F* by *b* (which itself sounds like *v* or *w*); as *a b-feanann*, their land, pronounced *a varran*.

8. *S* is eclipsed by *n*. But this is not a true eclipsis, for the resulting sound is not that of *n*, but the sound of English *ng*; thus *a nḡolla*, their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa*.

9. *P* is eclipsed by *b*; as *a b-ḡan*, pronounced *a bee-an*.

10. *S* is eclipsed by *t*, as *a t-rúil*, the eye, pronounced *an too-il*.

11. *T* is eclipsed by *d*; as *a d-tál*, their adze, pronounced *a dawl*.

#### RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.\*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—*án*, our; *báir*, your; *a*, their; eclipse the initial consonant of the next word; as *án d-tiḡeanna*, our Lord; *báir g-cran*, your tree; *a b-ḡaig*, their field.†

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of nouns in the genitive plural; as *teac na m-báird*, the house of the bards; *ḡort na g-capall*, the field of the horses.

3. When a simple preposition is followed by the article and a noun in the singular number, the initial consonant of the noun is generally eclipsed; as *aig an m-bóird*, on the table; *ó'n b-ḡaighe*, from the sea. (See page 34: see also Syntax.)

4. The initial consonant of a verb is eclipsed after the interrogative particles *a*, *an*, *cá*, *na*; also after *ḡo*, that; *muna*, unless; *iair*, after; *dá*, if; and after the relative *a* preceded by a preposition; as *a m-beirneann re*? Does he bear? *an m-buaileann tú*? Dost thou strike? *cá b-ḡaig rí*? Where is she? *na d-tuḡeann tu*? Dost thou not understand? *ḡo m-beannaighe Oia duit*, may God bless thee; *muna d-tuḡfuir*, unless thou shalt fall; *dá n-dearfaigh*, if I would say, *an tḡu an a d-taighc riad*, the country into which they came.

\* These rules apply of course only to those consonants that can be eclipsed. The rules for eclipsis, like those for aspiration, suppose a knowledge of Etymology.

† Rules 1, 2, 3, 4 do not apply to *r*. See for this letter Rule 5.

When a word beginning with *r* is preceded by the article, the *r* is eclipsed when the noun is nominative feminine or genitive singular and generally in the dative of both genders; as *an ríor* the river, the freedom: *ríor an t-áirde*, the field of grass; *an t-áirde* is *an t-áirde* in the world. When *r* is followed by *l*, *c*, *t*, *g*, *n*, *s* or *z*, it is not eclipsed; *ríor an t-áirde*, the valley of the river; *an t-áirde*, the field of the mountain. (See pages 11 and 14.)

The following rule is usually given with the rules for *r*—

When a word begins with *r* and the letter *r* is generally present in all cases when an initial consonant except *r* would be present as a *r*-initial. Thus *ríor* is *an t-áirde*, the field of grass.

When a word begins with *r* and the letter *r* is generally present in all cases when an initial consonant except *r* would be present as a *r*-initial. Thus *ríor* is *an t-áirde*, the field of grass.

In a compound of any combination of consonants, some of the vowels they must be either both slender or both broad. In *ríor*, *áirde*, the *i* and *e* are both broad vowels; and in *an t-áirde*, the *i* and the *e* are both slender vowels. But combinations as *ríor* and *áirde* are not allowable, because the *i* and the *e* in the first case and the *i* and the *e* in the second case are not of the same kind and the other slender.

In compounds with this rule when two words, or a word and a syllable are joined together so that in the resulting word a vowel or consonant combination would fall between two vowels of different kind, then either the vowel must be made slender or the slender one broad, as then in an agreement.

Sometimes the broad vowel is changed to make it agree with slender vowels; sometimes the slender vowel is made broad in with the broad vowel; sometimes it is the vowel before the consonant that is changed; sometimes the change is made in the vowel after the consonant. A prefix is generally changed to suit and it is joined to, not the reverse. Thus when *cón* is prefix to *áirde*, standing the word is *cónáirde*, competition. *áirde*.

Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish

is a very detailed and clear statement of the laws of aspiration applied, see the second Irish Book by the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language.

This rule is very generally, but not universally, followed in the language.

caoluḡad (*i.e.*, making slender; from caol, slender,) and in English *attenuation*; changing from slender to broad is called in Irish leaḡnuḡad (*i.e.*, making broad, from leaḡan, broad).

5. Attenuation takes place chiefly in two ways:—first, by putting a slender vowel between the broad vowel and the consonant; as when ball, a spot, is changed to baill, spots; or when fá is prefixed to buaill, and the resulting word is buaillféa, not buaillfá: secondly, by removing the broad vowel which precedes or follows the consonant, and putting a slender vowel in its place; as when ceann, a head, is changed to cinn, of a head.

6. In like manner “making broad” takes place chiefly in two ways, which are the reverse of the two preceding.

7. The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules and remarks:—

8. When the future termination *faid* is added to buaill, the resulting word is not buaillfaid, but buaillféad, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination *ad* is added to buaill, the resulting word is not buaillad, but buailead.

10. When móir, great, is fixed to cion, love, the compound is not móircion, but móirncion, great love.

11. When ceann, head, is prefixed to lictin, a letter, the compound is not ceannlictin, but cinnlictin, a head letter, or capital letter. (This is a case of irregular attenuation.)

12. When the diminutive termination *óg* is added to cuill, the resulting word is not cuillóg, but cuilleóg, a fly.

13. When *e* is added to onbóg, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not onbóge, but onbóige, of a thumb.

14. When the diminutive termination *ín* is added to capall, a horse, the whole word is not capallín, but capaillín.

## VI. SYSCOPE.

1. Syncope, or the omission of one or more letters from the body of a word, is very common in Irish.

2. When a short vowel occurs between a liquid (*l, n, r,* or *r,*) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.

3. The syncope generally consists in the omission of the short vowel; but this change often involves others, in accordance with the rule caol le caol, &c.; and is often also accompanied by some slight consonantal changes.

4. The following examples exhibit the chief types of syncope:—

5. *lanamha*, a married couple; plural *lanamha*, contracted from *lanamhana*.

6. *larajm*, a flame; plural *larmača*, contracted from *laramača*.

7. *Focal*, a word; *foclóim*, a dictionary, contracted from *focalóim*.

8. *Saibim*, rich; comparative *raibne*, contracted from *raibime*.

9. *Cačaim*, a city; genitive *cačmač*, contracted from *cačamač*.

10. *Flaiceamhail*, princely; comparative *flaiceamla*, contracted from *flaiceamhala*.

11. *Colann*, the body; genitive *colha*, (sometimes *colla*), contracted from *colanna*.

12. *Caia*, genitive *caiad*: the plural is formed by adding *e* to this, which syncopates the second *a*: this would make *caide*, which again, in accordance with the rule *caol le caol*, &c., is made *caide*.

13. *Uaral*, noble, becomes *uairle* in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. *Follur*, evident, becomes *foillre* in the comparative in a similar way.

15. *Abann*, a river: the plural is formed by adding *e*; this causes syncope of the second *a* and the omission of one *n*, which would make the plural *abne*; and this again becomes *aibne*, by the rule *caol le caol*, &c.

16. *Labaim*, speak (imperative mood); *labmam*, I speak, contracted from *labaimam*.

## PART II.

## ETYMOLOGY.

1. There are nine parts of speech in Irish, which are the same as those in English.

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## CHAPTER I.

## THE ARTICLE.

## I. CHANGE OF FORM IN THE ARTICLE.

1. The Irish language has one article, *an*, which has the same meaning as the English definite article *the*.

2. The article changes its form according to number, gender, and case.

3. In the singular number the article has the form *an* in all the cases except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes *na*; as *caisleán na cille*, the castle of the hen.

In the plural number the article is always *na*.

4. In the spoken language the *n* of *an* is often omitted before a consonant; as *ceann a tairb*, the head of the bull. And this is sometimes found in books also, both printed and MS., but it is not recommended.

5. When *an* follows a preposition ending in a vowel, the *a* is often omitted in writing, but the omission is usually marked by an apostrophe; thus, *ó an tír*, from the land, is written *ó' an tír*; and *fa an ngréin*, under the sun, is written *fa' an ngréin*.

Very often in MSS., and sometimes in printed books, the apostrophe in such cases is omitted, and the *n* of the article joined with the preposition; as *ón tír*, *fa'n ngréin*.

6. In the plural the article (*na*) is often joined to the preposition; as *do na*, for *do na*.

7. The letter *r* is inserted between certain prepositions and the article *an*; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus, *ann an leabair*, in the book, is written *annr an leabair*, and *ir an leabair*, which is still further shortened to *ran leabair*: also (omitting the *n*) *annra leabair*, and even *ra leabair*.

## II. CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE ARTICLE.

1. The article produces certain changes in the initial letters of nouns to which it is prefixed.

2. These changes are very important, and the learner will obtain a clearer view of them by separating the singular from the plural. (For more on this subject see page 34.)

## SINGULAR.

1. If the noun begins with an aspirable consonant (except *ῥ*, *τ*, *δ*), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as *αἷν βό*, the cow; *κυαν αἷν ῥῆν ἡόρν*, the harbor of the great man.

2. If the noun begins with *ῥ*, followed by a vowel or by *λ*, *η*, or *μ*, the *ῥ* is eclipsed by *τ* in those cases where, according to the last rule, a mutable consonant would be aspirated; as *αἷν τ-ῥάλ* (fem.), the heel; *αἷν τ-ῥμόν*, (fem.), the nose; *λυαὶ αἷν τ-ῥμυαῖν* (masc.), the price of the bridle.

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes *τ* to the nominative masculine, and *ῥ* to the genitive feminine; as *αἷν τ-αῖαμ*, the father; *λεαβαῖ ῥα ῥ-αῖδε*, the book of the dun (cow).

4. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant (except *δ* or *τ*), the article *generally* eclipses, if it be preceded by a simple preposition; as *αῖμ αἷν ῥ-κυανῇ*, on the tree; *ὀῖν ῥ-ῥοκαῖ ῥεμ*, "from the word 'iber,'" *λεῖρ αἷν ῥ-ῥεαμ*, with the man.

5. But after the prepositions *δο* and *δε*, the article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as *ceῖῑne céῑme δοῖν ῥῑορ*, four degrees of the zone (Keating); *δο λεαῖαδαν α ῥ-κορα δοῖν ῥαμ-ῥαῖῥ*, their feet clung to the rock (story of the Children of Lir).

6. No change is produced by the article in the singular number, if the noun begins with *λ*, *η*, *μ*, *δ*, *τ*, or with *ῥ* before a mute.

## PLURAL.

1 If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as *ῑοῖ ῥα ῥ-ῥοδβαδ* [the] island of the woods; *καῖῑν δεαῖ ῥῑῖδε ῥα ῥ-βό* [the] pretty girl of [the] milking of the cows (i.e., the pretty milking girl).

2. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes *η* to the genitive, and *ῥ* to the other cases; as *τῑμ ῥα ῥ-ὄῥ*, the land of the young (people); *ὀ ῥα ῥ-αῖῑβ ῥῑν*, from those places.

These are the only changes produced by the article in the plural.



## CHAPTER II.

## THE NOUN.

## I. GENDER.

1. There are only two genders in the Irish language, the masculine and feminine: all Irish nouns, therefore, are either masculine or feminine gender.

2. In ancient Irish there was a neuter gender, but no trace of it remains in the modern language.

3. To know and remember the gender of all ordinary Irish nouns is one of the great difficulties in learning the language, as it is in learning French and many other languages. Without this knowledge, which can only be mastered by practice, no one can speak or write Irish correctly.

4. There are a few general rules which will very much help the learner to distinguish the gender of nouns: they are only *general* rules, however, subject to many exceptions; and where they do not apply, the student must depend on practice and memory.

## MASCULINE.

1. The following nouns are generally masculine:—

(1.) Names of males; as *coileac*, a cock; *laoc*, a hero; *féar*, a man.

(2.) Nouns of more than one syllable, ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a broad vowel; as *doirtceall*, churlishness: except (*a*), derivatives in *ac*; (*b*), diminutives in *óg*.

(3.) Nouns ending in *óir*, *aipe*, *ac* *aide* (or *oide*, or *uide*), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as *spealadóir*, a mower; *realḡaipe*, a hunter; *ceitcharnaic*, a soldier—one of a body of *kerps*; *rḡealaide*, or *rḡeuluide*, a story-teller.

(4.) Diminutives in *an* and abstracts in *ar*; as *coileán*, a whelp; *cairdeas*, friendship.

(5.) Diminutives in *ín* are of the same gender as the nouns from which they are derived.

## FEMININE.

2. The following nouns are generally feminine:—

(1.) Names of females; names of countries, rivers, and diseases; as *cearc*, a hen; *Eipe*, Ireland; *bearta*, the Barrow; *pláig*, a plague.

(2.) Diminutives in *óg*, and derivatives in *ac*; as *fuireóg*, a lark; *cuirneac*, fragrance: and abstract nouns formed from the *active* feminine of adjectives; as *daíle*, blindness.

(3.) Nouns ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in óir); as rúil, the eye; róglaíon, learning.

## II. DECLENSIONS.

### CASES.

1. Irish nouns have four cases, that is, four different inflections, to express relation:—Nominative, genitive, dative, and vocative.

2. The nominative case is the same as the nominative case in English.

3. The genitive is the same as what is called the possessive case in English.

4. The dative is the case where a noun is governed by a preposition.

5. The vocative case is the same as what is called the nominative of address in English.

6. Irish nouns have different forms for these four cases, and for no others. Thus, the four cases of bradáin, a salmon, are, for the plural number, as follows:—Nom. bradáin, as trí bradáin, three salmons; gen. bradáin, as loc na n-bradáin, the lake of the salmons; dat. bradáin, as do na bradáin, to the salmons; voc. bradáin, as a bradáin ca b-fuail ríob aó dul? "O ye salmons, whither are ye going?"

7. These four cases are not always different in form; thus, the four cases of the same noun in the singular number are:—Nom. bradáin; gen. bradáin; dat. bradáin; voc. bradáin; in which it will be seen that the dative is the same as the nominative, and the vocative the same as the genitive.

8. Those cases which are alike in form are distinguished by the sense; just as the nominative and objective cases are distinguished in English.

9. Some writers on Irish grammar have put in two more cases, in imitation of Latin declension; the accusative (or, as it is called in English, the objective) and the ablative. But in Irish there are no separate inflections for them, the accusative being always the same in form as the nominative, and the ablative the same as the dative; so that it would be only a useless puzzle to the learner to include them in a statement of Irish declension. In certain explanations, however, and in the statement of certain rules, it is sometimes convenient to speak of the accusative case.

10. Different nouns have different inflections for the same case; thus the dative singular of cor, a foot, and dor, a bush, are different, namely, cor and dor. But though this variation extends

to most of the cases, the genitive singular is taken as the standard, in comparing the declension of one noun with the declension of another.

11. There are five chief ways of forming the genitive singular of Irish nouns; and in one or another of these ways, far the greatest number of nouns in the language form their genitive. There are usually reckoned, therefore, FIVE DECLENSIONS of Irish nouns.

12. Besides these there are genitive inflections, but as no one of them comprises any considerable number of nouns, it is not considered necessary to lay down more than five declensions. The number of declensions is, however, very much a matter of convenience; and, accordingly, in some Irish grammars, there are more than five, and in some less.

#### FIRST DECLENSION.

1. The first declension comprises masculine nouns which have their characteristic vowel, that is, the last vowel of the nominative singular, broad.

2. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the broad vowel.

3. In the singular, the dative is like the nominative, and the vocative is like the genitive; in the plural, the nominative is generally like the genitive singular, and the genitive like the nominative singular. Example, *ball*, a member, or limb.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.*	<i>ball</i> .	Nom.	<i>baill</i> .
Gen.	<i>baill</i> .	Gen.	<i>ball</i> .
Dat.	<i>ball</i> .	Dat.	<i>ballaib</i> .
Voc.	<i>a baill</i> .	Voc.	<i>a balla</i> .

4. The number of nouns that belong to this declension is very large; but though they all form their Genitive singular in the same way (except those in *ac*, in which there is a slight additional change, for which see next paragraph), there are a few which vary in the formation of other cases.

5. Nouns in *ac*, in addition to the attenuation, change *c* into *g* in the genitive singular; and generally form the nominative plural by adding *e* to the genitive singular; and from this again is formed the dative plural in *ib*, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 26. Example, *maicac*, a horseman.

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\* It would be well for the learner, when declining nouns, to call this "Nominative and Accusative" all through the declensions.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	ἡμεῖς.	Nom.	ἡμεῖς.
Gen.	ἡμεῶν.	Gen.	ἡμεῶν.
Dat.	ἡμῖν.	Dat.	ἡμῖν.
Voc.	ὦ ἡμεῖς.	Voc.	ὦ ἡμεῖς.

6. A few nouns make their nominative plural by an increase in *α*; as *πῆνη*, a pen; plur. *πῆνηα*; and some of these are syn-copated, as *ἄβη*, an apple; plur. *ἄβηα*.

7. In a few nouns of this declension the nominative plural is formed by adding *τα* or *τα* to the nominative singular; as *ρεῖ*, a sail; nom. plur. *ρεῖτα*; dat. plur. *ρεῖται*; *μήνη*, a wall; nom. plur. *μήνητα*; dat. plur. *μήνηται*.

8. In many words of one syllable belonging to this declension, the attenuation in the genitive singular causes considerable change in the vowel or diphthongal part of the word; thus, *κοῖ*, a body; gen. *κοῖς*; *ἰχθῆ*, a fish; gen. *ἰχθῆς*; *ἡμῆ*, strength; gen. *ἡμῆς* or *ἡμῆς*; *ἄνθρωπος*, a man; gen. *ἄνθρωπος*; *ἄνθρωπος*, a tree; gen. *ἄνθρωπος*; *ἄνθρωπος*, a mouth; gen. *ἄνθρωπος* or *ἄνθρωπος*.

The three following rules (9, 10, and 11) apply to all the declensions:

9. The dative plural ends in *ῖν*.

This *ῖν* correspond with the Latin dative and ablative termination *ibus* or *bus*. It is now hardly ever pronounced,\* but it is nearly always retained in writing; just as in English, *gh*, which was formerly sounded as a guttural in such words as *plough*, *daughter*, is retained in writing, though it is no longer pronounced.

10. The dative plural is formed from the nominative plural whenever this latter differs from the genitive singular: otherwise from the nominative singular.

11. The vocative is always preceded by the particle *ὦ* or *ὦ*, which aspirates the initial; as *ὦ ἄνθρωπος*, O man; *ὦ ἡμεῖς*, O women; *ὦ ἄνθρωπος*, O Lord.

## SECOND DECLENSION.

1. The second declension comprises most of the feminine nouns in the language.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding *ε* to the nominative. If the characteristic vowel is broad, it must be attenuated in accordance with the rule *caol le caol*, &c.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive singular by dropping the final *ε*.

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\* This syllable is always sounded in the West and North of Ireland which is undoubtedly the rule, the other being the exception.

3. When the characteristic vowel is broad, the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding *a*; when the characteristic vowel is slender, by adding *e*.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular.

6. The vocative is usually the same as the nominative, and is accordingly omitted from the paradigm.

First example: *reamuó*, a shamrock.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>reamuó</i> .	Nom. <i>reamuóa</i> .
Gen. <i>reamuóige</i> .	Gen. <i>reamuó</i> .
Dat. <i>reamuóis</i> .	Dat. <i>reamuóaisb</i> .

Second example: *péir*, a worm, a beast.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>péir</i> .	Nom. <i>péirte</i> .
Gen. <i>péirte</i> .	Gen. <i>péir</i> .
Dat. <i>péir</i> .	Dat. <i>péirtib</i> .

7. Nouns in *ac* when they belong to this declension, change the *c* to *g* in the genitive singular; thus, *cláirreac*, a harp, is declined as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>cláirreac</i> .	Nom. <i>cláirreaca</i> .
Gen. <i>cláirrige</i> .	Gen. <i>cláirreac</i> .
Dat. <i>cláirrig</i> .	Dat. <i>cláirreacaisb</i> .

8. There are many nouns belonging to this declension which depart from the general rule laid down in Par. 4, in forming their nominative plural.

9. Some, probably over fifty, form the nominative plural by adding *anna*; and these form the genitive plural by dropping the final *a* of this termination; thus, *cúir*, a cause; nom. plural, *cúireanna*; gen. plural, *cúireann* dat. plural, *cúireannaib*.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding *aca*: thus, *obair*, a work, and *oraib*, a prayer, make *oibreaca* and *oraideaca* in the nominative plural.

11. When the characteristic vowel is slender, it is often dropped in the genitive plural; as *fuaim*, a sound; gen. plural, *fuam*.

12. When the nominative plural takes *te*, the genitive plural is formed by adding *ad*; as *coill*, a wood; nom. plur. *coillte*: and genitive plural, as seen in *Óileán na 5-coilltead*, the island of the woods (Keating).

13. There are other variations of the nominative and genitive plural; but they do not comprise any considerable number of nouns, and they must be learned by practice.

## THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Nouns belonging to the third declension are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding *a* to the nominative singular.

3. The vocative is like the nominative.

4. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *a* or *e*.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular.  
Example: *cleap*, a trick or feat.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>cleap</i> .	Nom. <i>cleara</i> .
Gen. <i>cleara</i> .	Gen. <i>cleap</i> .
Dat. <i>cleap</i> .	Dat. <i>cleapaib</i> .

6. If the characteristic vowel is slender, it must be made broad in the genitive singular, in accordance with the rule *caol le caol*, &c.; as *toil*, the will, gen. *tola*.

7. Sometimes *o* or *é* is introduced before the *a* of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope: as *bodail*, sleep; genitive *bodailta*; *buaibinc*, trouble; genitive *cuaibéanta*.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in *ad*, *ead*, and *uad*, the genitives of which have the same form as their passive participles considered as verbs: and they are all commonly reckoned as belonging to this declension, though the genitive singular is formed in some by adding *e*, not *a*: as *molad*, praising; gen. *molta*; *rinead*, stretching; gen. *rinte*; *caoluad*, making slender; gen. *caoluise*.

9. Nouns in *ad* generally, and those in *ear* or *ior*, often, belong to this declension: as *clircead*, dexterity; gen. *clirceadta*; *doilgion*, sorrow; gen. *doilgiora*. But the greater number of those in *ear* or *ior* belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, *doilgion*, is often made *doilgior* in the genitive; and *bhronntanar*, a gift, makes *bhronntanair*.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in *iu*) which form their genitive singular in *ad*, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension: as *caitair*, a city; gen. *caitnac*; *Teamair*, Tara; gen. *Teamnac*; *griáin*, hatred; gen. *griánac*.

11. Those in *iu* generally form their genitive as above; but *atair*, a father; *matair*, a mother; and *briatair*, a brother, form their genitive by dropping the final *i*:—gen. *atár*, *matár*, *briatár*.

12. Outside the general rule stated in Par 4 above, there is considerable variety in the formation of the nominative plural.

13. Those in *όι* generally make the nominative plural by adding *ιδε*: as *ρρεαλαδόι*, a mower; nom. plur. *ρρεαλαδόιιδε*.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally *ηα ρρεαλαδόιιδ*, but sometimes *ηα ρρεαλαδόι*, or *ηα ρρεαλαδόιας*.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding *ηα* to it; as *ρριυτ*, a stream; gen. *ρριοτςα*; nom. plur. *ρριοτςα*, or *ρριοτςαηα*; *δριυη*, a back; gen. *δριοηα*; nom. plur. *δριοηα*, or *δριοηαηα*.

16. Those that add *ηα*, form the genitive plural by omitting the *α*; as *ρριυτς*; gen. plur. *ρριυτςαη*.

17. Many nouns of this declension that end in *η* or *ι*, form their plural by adding *τε* or *τα*; as *ηόη*, a bog; gen. sing. *ηόηα*; nom. plur. *ηόητε*.

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding *αδ*, to the nominative plural; as *ηόη*; gen. plur. *ηόητεαδ*.

19. Those that form their genitive singular in *ας* (10) form the plural by adding *α* to this *ας*; as *λαραη*, a flame; gen. sing. *λαρρας*; nom. plur. *λαρραα*.

#### FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fourth declension end in vowels or in *η*, and are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. There is no inflection in the singular, all the cases being alike.

3. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *ιδε* or *αδα* (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, *αιηηε*, a shoe.

##### Singular.

Nom. *αιηηε*.

Gen. *αιηηε*.

Dat. *αιηηε*.

##### Plural.

Nom. *αιηηηιδε*.

Gen. *αιηηηεαδ*.

Dat. *αιηηηιδιδ*.

4. Some form the plural by adding *τε* or *τςε*: as *τεηηηε*, a fire; nom. plur. *τεηηητε*; *δαοι*, a clown; nom. plur. *δαοιτςε*; and *αητςηε*, a commandment, has nom. plur. *αητςεαητςα*.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding *δ* or *αδ* (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural; as nom. plur. *δαοιτςε*, clowns; gen. plur. *δαοιτςεαδ*.

6. Nouns ending in *αιδε*, *υιδε*, and *αιηε*, generally belong to this declension; as *ρτςαβυιδε*, a slave; *ρςοβαηηε*, a piper.

## FIFTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fifth declension are mostly feminine.
  2. They generally end in a vowel; and they form their genitive by adding *η* or *ηη*, and occasionally *δ* or *τ*.
  3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive by attenuation.
  4. The nominative plural is formed from the genitive singular by adding *α*.
  5. The genitive plural is like the genitive singular.
- Example, *υἱρα*, a door-jamb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>υἱρα</i> .	Nom. <i>υἱρανα</i> .
Gen. <i>υἱραν</i> .	Gen. <i>υἱραν</i> .
Dat. <i>υἱραν</i> .	Dat. <i>υἱραναιβ</i> .

6. To this declension belong the proper names *Ἑρμε*, Ireland; gen. *Ἑρμεανη*, dat. *Ἑρμινη*; *Ἀλβα*, Scotland; gen. *Ἀλβαν*, dat. *Ἀλβαν*; *Μουνια*, Munster; gen. *Μουνιαν*, dat. *Μουνιαν*; and several others of less note.

7. *Κατα*, a friend, is an example of the genitive in *δ*: nom. *κατα*; genitive *καταδ*; dat. *καταδ*; nom. plur. *κατιδε*.

8. There is a good deal of variety in the formation of the cases of nouns belonging to this declension, which can only be learned by practice.

## IRREGULAR DECLENSION

1. Some nouns are irregular; that is, they are not inflected in accordance with any of the regular declensions.

2. The most important of the irregular nouns are\*:—*βαν*, a woman; *βό*, a cow; *βιῦ*, a womb; *κατα*, a sheep; *κεό*, a fog; *κηό*, a hut; *κύ*, a hound; *Οἶα*, God; *λά*, a day; *μή* a month; *ο* or *υα*, a grandson. They are declined as follows—(the vocative is not given where it is like the nominative):—

*βαν*, a woman, fem.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>βαν</i> .	Nom. <i>μηά</i> .
Gen. <i>μηά</i> .	Gen. <i>βαν</i> .
Dat. <i>μηαοι</i> .	Dat. <i>μηαιβ</i> .

*βό*, a cow, fem.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>βό</i> .	Nom. <i>βά</i> .
Gen. <i>βό</i> .	Gen. <i>βό</i> .
Dat. <i>βυνη</i> .	Dat. <i>βυαιβ</i> .

\* For additional examples of declensions of nouns, both regular and irregular, see Appendix at the end of the book.



*Երւ, a womb, fem.*

Nom. Երւ.	Nom. Երօղղա.
Gen. Երւօղղե, or Երօղղ.	Gen. Երօղղ.
Dat. Երօղղ.	Dat. Երօղղայն.

*Եօրա, a sheep, fem*

Nom. Եօրա.	Nom. Եօրիւյն.
Gen. Եօրաւ.	Gen. Եօրաւ.
Dat. Եօրա.	Dat. Եօրեայն.
Voc. ա Եօրա.	Voc. ա Եօրեա.

*Շօ, a fog, masc.*

Nom. Շօ	Nom. Շիւ
Gen. Շիւ or Շօյն.	Gen. Շօ.
Dat. Շօ	Dat. Շօեայն.

*Շո or Շիւ, a nut, masc.*

Nom. Շո.	Nom. Շիւ, Շիւ.
Gen. Շո, Շիւ.	Gen. Շիւ.
Dat. Շո, Շիւ.	Dat. Շիւ.

*Ըւ, a hound, masc. or fem.*

Nom. Ըւ.	Nom. Ըօղ, Ըիւղ, Ըղա, or Ըօղե.
Gen. Ըղ.	Gen. Ըղ.
Dat. Ըօղ.	Dat. Ըղայն.

*Օյա, God, masc.*

Nom. Օյա.	Nom. Օե, Օեյե.
Gen. Օե.	Gen. Օյա, Օեյեաւ.
Dat. Օյա.	Dat. Օեյն, Օեյեյն.
Voc. ա Օյե or ա Օիյա.	Voc. ա Օեյե or ա Օիյե.

*Լա, a day, masc.*

Nom. Լա.	Nom. Լաե.
Gen. Լա.	Gen. Լաեաւ.
Dat. Լա, Լօ.	Dat. Լաեյն.

*Չի, a month, fem.*

Nom. Մի.	Nom. Միօրա.
Gen. Մի, միօրա.	Gen. միօր.
Dat. մի, մի.	Dat. միօրայն.

*Օ or Սա, a grandson, masc.*

Nom. Օ, Սա.	Nom. Սի.
Gen. Ս, Սի.	Gen. Սա.
Dat. Օ, Սա.	Dat. Սն, Սի.
Voc. ա Սի.	Voc. ա Սի.

## DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The initial changes produced by the article in the nouns to which it is prefixed have been set forth at page 22; these changes must be carefully observed in declining nouns with the article.

2. Twelve typical examples are here given, corresponding with the several cases mentioned in paragraphs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, page 22; and these examples include almost every possible variety. There is a good deal of difference of usage in the dative singular of nouns beginning with *r*.

3. The declension of the singular number only is given; the changes in the plural are so very simple (see page 22,) that they can present no difficulty.

4. Col<sup>5</sup>, a sword, masc. Nom. *an col<sup>5</sup>*; gen. *an cúil<sup>5</sup>*; dat. *leir an <sup>5</sup>-col<sup>5</sup>* (Par. 4, p. 22), or *do'n col<sup>5</sup>* (Par. 5, p. 22).

5. Cailleac<sup>c</sup>, a hag, fem. Nom. *an cailleac<sup>c</sup>*; gen. *na cáil-lig<sup>e</sup>*; dat. *ó'n <sup>5</sup>-cáillig<sup>5</sup>*, or *do'n cáillig<sup>5</sup>*.

6. Sao<sup>5</sup>al, the world, masc. Nom. *an rao<sup>5</sup>al*; gen. *an <sup>c</sup>-rao<sup>5</sup>ail*; dat. *ó'n rao<sup>5</sup>al*, or *do'n <sup>c</sup>-rao<sup>5</sup>al* (Par. 5, p. 22).

7. Sabóid, the Sabbath, fem. Nom. *an <sup>c</sup>-Sabóid*; gen. *na Sabóide*; dat. *ó'n Sabóid*, or *do'n <sup>c</sup>-Sabóid* (Pars. 2 and 5, p. 22).

8. Slac, a rod, fem. Nom. *an <sup>c</sup>-rlac*; gen. *na rlaice*; dat. *leir an rlaic*, or *do'n <sup>c</sup>-rlaic*.

9. Siól, satin, masc. Nom. *an rriól*; gen. *an <sup>c</sup>-rriól*; dat. *ó'n rriól*, or *do'n <sup>c</sup>-rriól*.

10. A<sup>5</sup>al, an ass, masc. Nom. *an <sup>c</sup>-a<sup>5</sup>al*; gen. *an a<sup>5</sup>ail*; dat. *ó'n a<sup>5</sup>al*.

11. I<sup>5</sup>ir, an island, fem. Nom. *an i<sup>5</sup>ir*; gen. *na h-i<sup>5</sup>ire*; dat. *do'n i<sup>5</sup>ir*.

12. Leac, a stone, fem. Nom. *an leac*; gen. *na leice*; dat. *do'n leic* (Par. 6, page 22).

13. Oíle, a deluge, fem. Nom. *an óile*; gen. *na óileann*; dat. *do'n óilínn*.

14. S<sup>5</sup>eul, a story, masc. Nom. *an r<sup>5</sup>eul*; gen. *an r<sup>5</sup>éil*; dat. *ó'n r<sup>5</sup>eul*.

15. Speal, a scythe, fem. Nom. *an rpeal*; gen. *na rpeile*; dat. *leir an rpeil*.

## CHAPTER III.

## THE ADJECTIVE.

## I. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. In Irish the adjective changes its form according to the gender, case, and number of the noun.

2. Adjectives are declined in much the same manner as nouns ; but they never take the inflection  $\text{ιβ}$  in the dative plural (though anciently they had this inflection like nouns) ; the dative plural of an adjective is like the nominative plural.

There are usually reckoned four declensions of adjectives.

4. The inflections of these four declensions follow those of the noun so closely, that when the noun is mastered the adjective presents no difficulty.

#### FIRST DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the first declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a broad vowel, as  $\text{βαν}$ , white ;  $\text{βλυτ}$ , wet.

2. In the masculine gender (*i.e.*, when the adjective belongs to a masculine noun), they are declined the same as nouns of the first declension of the type of  $\text{βαλλ}$ , except that the nominative plural always ends in  $\alpha$ .

3. In the feminine gender adjectives are declined the same as nouns of the second declension of the type of  $\text{ρεαμηδ}$ .

4. Both genders are alike in the plural. Example,  $\text{βαν}$ , white.

Singular.		Plural.
Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.
Nom. $\text{βαν}$ .	$\text{βαν}$ .	Nom. $\text{βανα}$ .
Gen. $\text{βανη}$ .	$\text{βανη}$ .	Gen. $\text{βανη}$ .
Dat. $\text{βανη}$ .	$\text{βανη}$ .	Dat. $\text{βαναη}$ .
Voc. $\text{βανη}$ .	$\text{βαν}$ .	Voc. $\text{βανα}$ .

#### SECOND DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the second declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel.

2. In the singular, all the cases of both masculine and feminine are alike, except the genitive feminine, which takes  $\epsilon$ .

3. In the plural, both genders are alike, and all the cases except the genitive are formed by adding  $\epsilon$  ; the genitive is like the nominative singular. Example,  $\text{μην}$ , smooth, fine.

Singular.		Plural.
Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.
Nom. $\text{μην}$ .	$\text{μην}$ .	Nom. $\text{μηνη}$ .
Gen. $\text{μηνη}$ .	$\text{μηνη}$ .	Gen. $\text{μηνη}$ .
Dat. $\text{μηνη}$ .	$\text{μηνη}$ .	Dat. $\text{μηνη}$ .
Voc. $\text{μηνη}$ .	$\text{μηνη}$ .	Voc. $\text{μηνη}$ .

#### THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the third declension are those that end in  $\text{ανη}$ , which has the same signification as the English postfix *like* :— $\text{βανη}$ , a woman ;  $\text{βανανη}$ , womanlike, modest.

2. The two genders are always alike.

3. The four cases singular are alike except the genitive, which is formed by adding *α*, with a syncope.

4. In the plural, the genitive is the same as the nominative singular; and the other cases are the same as the genitive singular. Example, *μαῖρεαῖα*, graceful.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>μαῖρεαῖα</i> .	Nom. <i>μαῖρεαῖα</i> .
Gen. <i>μαῖρεαῖα</i> .	Gen. <i>μαῖρεαῖα</i> ,
Dat. <i>μαῖρεαῖα</i> .	Dat. <i>μαῖρεαῖα</i> .

#### FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as *μόμδα*, majestic.

2. They have no inflections, being alike in all cases, numbers, genders.

#### II. DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The rules for the aspiration of the initial consonants of adjectives agreeing with nouns are given at page 22; and these rules must be very carefully observed in declining nouns with adjectives.

2. It may be added here that *δ* and *τ* sometimes resist aspiration, especially if they follow a noun ending in *η*. There is much variety of usage as to aspiration of adjectives in the dative singular.

3. When a noun is declined with both an adjective and the article, the initial of the adjective is generally eclipsed in the genitive plural (or takes *η* if it be a vowel).

4. Four typical examples are here given of the declension of the adjective with the noun (for the influence of the article, see page 92):—

*Ἀν capall βᾶη, the white horse, masc.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>ἄν capall βᾶη</i> .	<i>ἡα capall βᾶηα</i> .
Gen. <i>ἄν capall βᾶη</i> .	<i>ἡα 3-capall ἡ-βᾶη</i> .
Dat. <i>ὀ'η 3-capall βᾶη, or</i> <i>ἡ-βᾶη</i> .	<i>ὀ'ηα capallaβ βᾶηα</i> .
Voc. <i>α capall βᾶη</i> .	<i>α capalla βᾶηα</i> .

*Ἀν fujreός beα3, the little lark, fem.*

Nom. <i>ἄν fujreός beα3</i> .	<i>ἡα fujreό3α beα3α</i> .
Gen. <i>ἡα fujreό3ε β3ε</i> .	<i>ἡα β-fujreός ἡ-beα3</i> .
Dat. <i>ὀ'η β-fujreο13 β13</i> .	<i>ὀ'ηα fujreό3αβ beα3α</i> .
Voc. <i>α fujreός beα3</i> .	<i>α fujreό3α beα3α</i> .

Աղ ցոօս արծ, *the high hill, masc.*

Nom. աղ ցոօս արծ.  
Gen. աղ ցոսից արծ.  
Dat. զ'ղ ցոօս արծ.  
Voc. ա ցոսից արծ.

Nom. դա ցոսից արծա.  
Gen. դա ցոօս դ-արծ.  
Dat. զ'դա ցոօսից արծա.  
Voc. ա ցոօս արծա.

Աղ ՆՅՈՒ ԾԱԾ, *the black cow, fem.*

Nom. աղ ՆՅՈՒ ԾԱԾ.  
Gen. դա ՆՅՈՒ ԾԱԾ.  
Dat. զ'դա Ն-ԲԱՅՈՒ ԾԱԾ.  
Voc. ա ՆՅՈՒ ԾԱԾ.

Nom. դա ՆԱ ԾԱԾա.  
Gen. դա Ն-ՆՅՈՒ դ-ԾԱԾ.  
Dat. զ'դա ՆԱ ԾԱԾից ԾԱԾա.  
Voc. ա ՆԱ ԾԱԾա.

### III. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Irish adjectives have three degrees of comparison, the same as English adjectives.

2. The positive is the simple form of the adjective; as արծ, high; փայլեամիսլ, princely.

3. The comparative and the superlative have the same form, which is that of the genitive singular feminine; as արծե, փայլեամիսլա; and they are distinguished by prefixed particles, or by the context.

4. The comparative has generally the particle դիօր (or դիօրա, or դիօր) prefixed, and it is usually followed by դա, than (spelled also դիա and յոնա); as տա աղ ԵԱԾ ԻՅՈՒ դիօր արծե դա աղ ԵԱԾ ԻՅՈՒ, this house is higher than that house; տա աղ ԼԱՕԾ ՆՅՈՒ դիօր փայլեամիսլա դա աղ ՆՅՈՒ ԲԵՅՈՒ, "yonder champion is more princely than the king himself."

5. The superlative is often preceded by իր or ալ, with the article expressed before the noun; as աղ ԲԵԱՐ իր փայլեամիսլա իր շիսլ, the most princely man in the country.

6. In the comparative, դիօր is omitted when the assertion or question is made by the verb իր in any of its forms, expressed or understood; as ԲԱ ԾԱԾԵ Ա ԶԻՄԱԶ դա աղ ԶԱԼ, "her hair was blacker than the coal;" իր ԶԻԼ ԻՊԵԱԾԱ դա ԲԱՅՈՒ, snow is whiter than milk; աղ ԲԵԱՐ իր ԾԵԱՐՆԻԱԾԱՐ դա ԸՐԱ? is thy brother better than thou?

7. When the characteristic particles are not expressed, the construction generally determines whether the adjective is comparative or superlative; as աղ ԵԱԾԱՆ իր ԱՐԻԼԵ դա ԲԻԾԵԱԾ, the art which is nobler than poetry; աղ ԵԱԾԱՆ իր ԱՐԻԼԵ ԱՐԻ ԲԻԾ, "the art which is the noblest in the world."

8. An adjective in the comparative or superlative is not inflected, all the cases being alike in form.

## IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

1. The following adjectives are irregularly compared. There are a few others, but their departure from rule is so slight as not to require notice:—

2.  $\lambda\iota\alpha$  is a comparative as it stands, signifying more (in number); but it has no positive, unless  $\iota\omicron\mu\theta\alpha$ , or  $\mu\theta\acute{o}\nu\eta$  (many), or some such word, be considered as such.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
$\beta\epsilon\alpha\zeta$ , little.	$\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\lambda\iota\zeta\alpha$ .	$\iota\tau$ $\lambda\iota\zeta\alpha$ .
$\rho\alpha\delta\alpha$ , long.	$\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\rho\alpha\iota\delta\epsilon$ , $\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\rho\iota\alpha$ .	$\iota\tau$ $\rho\alpha\iota\delta\epsilon$ , $\iota\tau$ $\rho\iota\alpha$ .
$\epsilon\upsilon\mu\upsilon\tau$ , or $\alpha\upsilon\mu\upsilon\tau$ , easy.	$\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\epsilon\upsilon\tau\alpha$ , $\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\upsilon\tau\alpha$ .	$\iota\tau$ $\epsilon\upsilon\tau\alpha$ , $\iota\tau$ $\upsilon\tau\alpha$ .
$\mu\alpha\iota\tau$ , } good.	$\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\mu\mu$ .	$\iota\tau$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\mu\mu$ .
$\delta\epsilon\alpha\zeta$ , }		
$\mu\eta\eta\iota\varsigma$ , often.	$\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\mu\eta\omicron\eta\varsigma\alpha$ .	
$\mu\acute{o}\mu$ , great.	$\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\mu\acute{o}$ .	$\iota\tau$ $\mu\acute{o}$ .
$\omicron\lambda\varsigma$ , bad.	$\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\mu\epsilon\alpha\tau\alpha$ .	$\iota\tau$ $\mu\epsilon\alpha\tau\alpha$ .
$\tau\epsilon\iota\tau$ , hot.	$\eta\acute{\iota}\omicron\tau$ $\tau\epsilon\acute{o}$ .	$\iota\tau$ $\tau\epsilon\acute{o}$ .

11. There are certain particles which, when prefixed to adjectives, intensify their signification; and in accordance with the rule in Par. 4, page 22, they aspirate the initials of the adjectives.

12. The principal of these are  $\alpha\eta$ ,  $\rho\acute{\iota}\omicron\mu$ ,  $\mu\acute{o}$ ,  $\rho\acute{\alpha}\mu$ ,  $\acute{\upsilon}\mu$ : as  $\mu\alpha\iota\tau$ , good;  $\alpha\eta\text{-}\mu\alpha\iota\tau$ , very good;  $\zeta\mu\acute{\iota}\alpha\eta\eta\alpha$ , ugly;  $\rho\acute{\iota}\omicron\mu\text{-}\zeta\mu\acute{\iota}\alpha\eta\eta\alpha$ , excessively ugly;  $\mu\acute{o}\mu$ , large;  $\mu\acute{o}\text{-}\mu\acute{o}\mu$ , very large;  $\lambda\alpha\iota\delta\iota\mu$ , strong;  $\rho\acute{\alpha}\mu\text{-}\lambda\alpha\iota\delta\iota\mu$ , very strong, &c.

## IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. The following is a list of the most important of the numerals, both cardinal and ordinal.

For the influence of some of them in aspirating and eclipsing, and for other syntactical influences on the noun, see Syntax.

Cardinal.	Ordinal.
1. $\alpha\omicron\eta$ .	1st. $\acute{\epsilon}\epsilon\alpha\delta$ .
2. $\delta\acute{o}$ , $\delta\alpha$ .	2d. $\delta\alpha\mu\alpha$ .
3. $\tau\mu\acute{\iota}$ , $\tau\epsilon\acute{o}\mu\alpha$ .	3rd. $\tau\mu\epsilon\alpha\tau$ .
4. $\epsilon\epsilon\alpha\tau\alpha\iota\mu$ , $\epsilon\epsilon\iota\tau\mu\epsilon$ .	4th. $\epsilon\epsilon\alpha\tau\mu\alpha\eta\alpha\delta$ .
5. $\epsilon\acute{\upsilon}\iota\zeta$ .	5th. $\epsilon\acute{\upsilon}\iota\zeta\epsilon\alpha\delta$ .
6. $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$ .	6th. $\rho\epsilon\iota\tau\epsilon\alpha\delta$ .
7. $\rho\epsilon\alpha\acute{\epsilon}\tau$ .	7th. $\rho\epsilon\alpha\acute{\epsilon}\tau\mu\alpha\delta$ .
8. $\omicron\acute{\epsilon}\tau$ .	8th. $\omicron\acute{\epsilon}\tau\mu\alpha\delta$ .
9. $\eta\alpha\omicron\iota$ .	9th. $\eta\alpha\omicron\mu\alpha\delta$ .
10. $\delta\epsilon\iota\tau$ .	10th. $\delta\epsilon\alpha\acute{\epsilon}\mu\alpha\delta$ .
11. $\alpha\omicron\eta$ $\delta\epsilon\alpha\zeta$ .	11th. $\alpha\omicron\eta\mu\alpha\delta$ $\delta\epsilon\alpha\zeta$ .
12. $\delta\acute{o}$ $\delta\epsilon\alpha\zeta$ , $\delta\alpha$ $\delta\epsilon\alpha\zeta$ .	12th. $\delta\alpha\mu\alpha$ $\delta\epsilon\alpha\zeta$ .
13. $\tau\mu\acute{\iota}$ $\delta\epsilon\alpha\zeta$ .	13th. $\tau\mu\epsilon\alpha\tau$ $\delta\epsilon\alpha\zeta$ .

And so on, up to and including 19.

Cardinal.	Ordinal.
20. Բի՛ւն.	20th. Բի՛ւնաձ.
21. { աօղ ա'ր Բի՛ւն, աօղ այլ Բի՛ւնիձ, And so on, up to 29.	21st. { աօղի՜նաձ ալլ Բի՛ւնիձ.
30. { Երի՛նոձաձ, Երի՛նոձա, Ելի՛ն ա'ր Բի՛ւն.	30th. { Երի՛նոձաձաձ, Եա՛նի՜նաձ ալլ Բի՛ւնիձ.
33. { Երի՛ ալլ Երի՛նոձա՜յն, Երի՛ Ե՛նա՜յ ա'ր Բի՛ւն.	33d. { Երեա՛ր ալլ Երի՛ն- ոձա՜յն, Երեա՛ր Ե՛նա՜յ ալլ Բի՛ւնիձ.
40. { Ե՛ն Բի՛ւնիձ, Եա՛ն- ի՜նաձ, Եա՛նի՜նա- նոձա՜յն.	40th. Եա՛նի՜նաձաձաձ.
50. Եա՛նո՜յն, Եա՛նո՜յնաձ.	50th. Եա՛նո՜յնաձաձ.
60. { Եա՛րի՜նաձ, Եա՛րի՜նա, Երի՛ Բի՛ւնիձ.	60th. { Եա՛րի՜նաձաձ, Երի՛ Բի՛ւնի՜նաձ.
70. { Եա՛նի՜նո՜յնաձ, Եա՛նի՜ն- ո՜յնաձ, Ելի՛ն ա'ր Երի՛ Բի՛ւնիձ.	70th. { Եա՛նի՜նո՜յնաձաձ, Եա՛նի՜նաձ ալլ Երի՛ Բի՛ւնիձ.
80. { օ՛նի՜նո՜յնաձ, օ՛նի՜ն- ո՜յնաձ, Ելի՛ն Երե- ի՛ն Բի՛ւնիձ.	80th. { օ՛նի՜նո՜յնաձաձ, Ելի՛ն Երե- ի՛ն Բի՛ւնի՜նաձ.
90. { Երե՛նա՜յ, Երե՛նա՜յն, Ելի՛ն ա'ր Ելի՛ն Երե- ի՛ն Բի՛ւնիձ.	90th. { Երե՛նա՜յն, Եա՛ն- ի՜նաձ ալլ Ելի՛ն Երե-ի՛ն Բի՛ւնիձ.
100. Ե՛նաձ.	100th. Ե՛նաձաձ.
1,000. Երի՛ն.	1,000th. Երի՛նաձ.
2,000. Ե՛ն Երի՛ն.	2,000th. Ե՛ն Երի՛նաձ.
1,000,000. Երի՛նի՜ն.	1,000,000th. Երի՛նի՜նաձ.

2 Եձ and Եա՛նալլ are used only in the absence of nouns, *i.e.*, merely as the names of the numbers; but Ե՛ն and Ելի՛ն are always used when the nouns are expressed; as Ե՛ն ժլալլ, two ears; Ելի՛ն Բիլլ, four men.

3. Բի՛ւն is declined:—Nom. Բի՛ւն; gen. Բի՛ւնաձ; dat. Բի՛ւնիձ; nom. plur. Բի՛ւնիձ.

4. Ե՛նաձ has gen. Ենի՜ն; nom. plural, Ե՛նաձա, or Ե՛նաձա.

5. The following nouns, which are all, except Ելլալլ, formed from the numerals, are applied to persons only:—

Երե՛ն, Երե՛ն, two persons.	Եա՛նալլ,	} seven persons.
Ելլալլ, a couple.	Երե՛ն Ելլալլ,	
Երե՛նի՜ն, three persons.	օ՛նալլ,	eight "
Եա՛նալլ, four "	Երե՛նալլ, Եա՛նալլ,	nine "
Ելլալլ, five "	Ելլալլ Եա՛նալլ,	ten "
Ելլալլ, six "		

## CHAPTER IV.

## THE PRONOUN.

1. There are in Irish six kinds of pronouns:—Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

## I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. There are four personal pronouns—*mé*, I; *tú*, thou; *ré*, he; *sí*, she; with their plurals, *ri**nn*, we; *rib* ye or you; and *ri**ad*, they. These are the simple forms of the personal pronouns.

2. Each of these takes an emphatic increase or postfixed syllable, equivalent to the English word *self*; and the whole word thus formed is called the emphatic form. The emphatic syllables vary their vowel part in accordance with the rule *caol le caol*, &c.

3. The following are the emphatic forms:—*W**ir*e, or *m*e*r*i, myself; *tú**ra*, thyself; *ré**re**an*, himself; *ri**re*, herself; *ri**nne*, ourselves; *rib**re*, yourselves; *ri**ad**ra**n*, themselves.

4. The word *fé**in*, self, is often added to the personal pronouns, not as a particle but as a separate word; and it is still more emphatic than the particles mentioned in last paragraph:—*mé* *fé**in*, I myself; *sí* *fé**in*, she herself.

5. The personal pronouns are all declined; and they may carry the emphatic increase through all the cases.

6. The personal pronouns (except *mé*), unlike nouns, have a distinct form for the accusative (or objective) case. It is, of course, only the pronoun *tú* that is used in the vocative.

## DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The declension of the emphatic form of *mé* is given as an example: observe, in this, the vowel changes in obedience to *caol le caol*, &c.

*Wé, I.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>mé</i> , I.	Nom. <i>ri</i> <i>nn</i> , we.
Gen. <i>mo</i> , mine.	Gen. <i>a</i> <i>n</i> , our.
Dat. <i>dom</i> , <i>da</i> <i>n</i> <i>h</i> , to me.	Dat. <i>dú</i> <i>nn</i> <i>h</i> , to us.
Acc. <i>mé</i> , me.	Acc. <i>nn</i> <i>h</i> or <i>ri</i> <i>nn</i> <i>h</i> , us.

*W**ir*e, myself (emphatic form).

Nom. <i>m</i> <i>ir</i> e, <i>m</i> e <i>r</i> i, myself.	Nom. <i>ri</i> <i>nne</i> , ourselves.
Gen. <i>mo</i> - <i>ra</i> , my own.	Gen. <i>a</i> <i>n</i> - <i>ne</i> , our own.
Dat. <i>dom</i> <i>ra</i> , <i>da</i> <i>n</i> <i>h</i> <i>ra</i> , to myself.	Dat. <i>dú</i> <i>nn</i> <i>ne</i> , to ourselves.
Acc. <i>m</i> <i>ir</i> e, <i>m</i> e <i>r</i> i, myself.	Acc. <i>nn</i> <i>ne</i> , <i>ri</i> <i>nne</i> , ourselves.



*Τú, thou.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>τú,</i>	Nom. <i>ῖῖḃ.</i>
Gen. <i>δο.</i>	Gen. <i>ḃυῖ, ḃαῖ.</i>
Dat. <i>δουτ.</i>	Dat. <i>οαοῖḃ, δῖḃ.</i>
Acc. <i>έú.</i>	Acc. <i>ῖḃ, ῖῖḃ.</i>
Voc. <i>έú.</i>	Voc. <i>ῖῖḃ, ῖḃ.</i>

*Σέ, he.*

Nom. <i>ῖέ.</i>	Nom. <i>ῖῖαδ.</i>
Gen. <i>α.</i>	Gen. <i>α.</i>
Dat. <i>δο.</i>	Dat. <i>δóῖḃ.</i>
Acc. <i>έ.</i>	Acc. <i>ῖαδ.</i>

*Σί, she.*

Nom. <i>ῖῖ.</i>	Nom. <i>ῖῖαδ.</i>
Gen. <i>α.</i>	Gen. <i>α.</i>
Dat. <i>δῖ.</i>	Dat. <i>δóῖḃ.</i>
Acc. <i>ί.</i>	Acc. <i>ῖαδ.</i>

## PERSONAL PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. In Irish, the personal and the possessive pronouns unite with prepositions, each compound forming a single word.

2. In each case the preposition and the pronoun are amalgamated, and the latter changes its form, so as to be considerably, and, in some cases, completely disguised.

3. These "prepositional pronouns," as they are sometimes called, are of constant occurrence in the language—scarce a sentence in which they are not met with: they are therefore of great importance, and the learner should get them all off by heart.

4. The following prepositions unite with personal pronouns:—*αḃ; αῖῖ* or *αῖ; αῖῖ* or *ῖ; αῖ; έῖῖ; δε; δο; εῖδῖῖ* or *ῖδῖῖ; ḃά* or *ḃαοῖ; le; o* or *ua; ῖοῖῖῖ; ḃeač; ταῖ; τῖḃé; uaῖ; um* or *ῖῖ.*

5. The following are the combinations of these prepositions with the personal pronouns.

6. The emphatic particles may be used with these combinations also, as well as with the uncompounded pronouns, of which one example is given:—

*Αḃ, at or with.*

Singular.	Plural.
<i>αḃαῖ, with, or at me.</i>	<i>αḃαῖῖῖ, with us.</i>
<i>αḃατ, αḃαδ, with thee.</i>	<i>αḃαῖḃ, with you.</i>
<i>αῖḃe, with him.</i>	<i>αα or acu, with them.</i>
<i>αῖce or αῖcῖ, with her.</i>	

*The same with the emphatic increase.*

## Singular.

αζαμῖα, with myself.  
 αζατῖα, with thyself.  
 αἰζερεαν, with himself.  
 αἰεῖρε, with herself.

## Plural.

αζαῖηηε, with ourselves.  
 αζαῖβρε, with yourselves.  
 ακαῖαν, with themselves.

## Ἀπὸ or ἀπὸ, upon.

οἱμ, on me.  
 οἱτ, on thee.  
 αἱμ, on him.  
 αἱμῖε, on her.

οἱμῖαν, on us.  
 οἱμῖβ, on you.  
 οἱμῖα, οἱμῖα, on them.

## Ἀνθ or ἰ, in.

ἰσηαμ, in me.  
 ἰσηατ, ἰσηαδ, in thee.  
 αἱη, in him.  
 ἰηητε, ἰηητῖ, in her.

ἰσηαῖηη, ἰσηαῖηη, in us.  
 ἰσηαῖβ, in you.  
 ἰσηητα, in them.

## Ἐκ, out of.

αῖαμ, out of me.  
 αῖατ, αῖαδ, out of thee.  
 αῖ, out of him.  
 αῖτε, αῖτῖ, out of her.

αῖαῖηη, out of us.  
 αῖαῖβ, out of you.  
 αῖτα, αῖτα, out of them.

## Ἐς, towards, unto.

ἐςαμ, unto me.  
 ἐςατ, unto thee.  
 ἐςαῖε, unto him.  
 ἐςαῖτῖ, unto her.

ἐςαῖηη, unto us.  
 ἐςαῖβ, unto you.  
 ἐςα, unto them.

## Ἐκ, from or off.

ἐξομ, off or of me.  
 ἐξότ, off thee.  
 ἐε, off him.  
 ἐῖ, off her.

ἐξῖηη, off us.  
 ἐξῖβ, off you.  
 ἐξῖβ, off them.

## Ὅ, to.

ὁαμ, ὁομ, ὁαῖη, to me.  
 ὁαῖτ, to thee.  
 ὁό, to him.  
 ὁῖ, to her.

ὁύῖηη, to us.  
 ὁαῖβ, ὁῖβ, to you.  
 ὁόβ, to them.

## Ἐνθῖν, between.

ἐανθῖαμ, between me.  
 ἐανθῖατ, between thee.  
 ἐνθῖν ἐ, between him.  
 ἐνθῖν ῖ, between her.

ἐανθῖαῖηη, between us.  
 ἐανθῖαῖβ, between you.  
 ἐανθῖα, between them.

## Ἐα or ἑαοί, under.

## Singular.

ἑῦμ, under me.  
ἑῦτ, under thee.  
ἑαοί, under him.  
ἑῦτε, under her.

## Plural.

ἑῦν, under us.  
ἑῦβ, under you.  
ἑῦτα, under them.

## λε, with.

λήμ, with me.  
λεατ, with thee.  
λεῖτ, with him.  
λέτε, λέι, with her.

λήν, with us.  
λῖβ, with you.  
λεό, with them.

λε is often written με in books, and its pronominal combinations in this form are often met with. They are as follows:—

μεμ, with me.  
μεοτ, with thee.  
μετ, with him.  
μεα, with her.

μεν, with us.  
μῖβ, with you.  
μευ, with them.

## ὅ or υα from.

υαμ, from me.  
υατ, from thee.  
υαδ, from him.  
υατε, υατε, from her.

υν, from us.  
υῖβ, from you.  
υντα, from them.

## Ἦοιμ, before.

Ἦοιμ, before me.  
Ἦοιατ, before thee.  
Ἦοιμε, before him.  
Ἦοιμπε, Ἦοιμβι, before her.

Ἦοιμν, before us.  
Ἦοιμῖβ, before you.  
Ἦοιμπα, before them.

## Ἐαὐ, beside.

Ἐαὐμ, beside me.  
Ἐαὐατ, beside thee.  
Ἐαὐε, beside him.  
Ἐαὐί, beside her.

Ἐαὐν, beside us.  
Ἐαὐῖβ, beside you.  
Ἐαὐα, beside them.

## Ἐαυ, beyond, over.

Ἐαυμ, Ἐαυμ, over me.  
Ἐαυατ, Ἐαυατ, over thee.  
Ἐαυιτ, Ἐαυιτ, over him.  
Ἐαυιτε, Ἐαυιτ, over her.

Ἐαυν, Ἐαυν, over us.  
Ἐαυῖβ, Ἐαυῖβ, over you.  
Ἐαυτα, Ἐαυτα, over them.

## Ἐνε, through.

Ἐνίμ, through me.  
Ἐνίοτ, through thee.  
Ἐνίδ, through him.  
Ἐνίτε, Ἐνίτ, through her.

Ἐνίν, through us.  
Ἐνίβ, through you.  
Ἐνίοτα, through them.

Ար, *above.*

Singular.
ւարամ, above me.
ւարաւ, above thee.
ւարա, above him.
ւարե, վարել, above her.

Plural.
ւարայն, above us.
ւարայն, above you.
ւարա, above them.

Ամ or յմ, *about.*

ամամ, about me.
ւմաւ, about thee.
ւմե, about him.
ւմբե, վմբել, about her.

ւմայն, about us.
ւմայն, about you.
ւմբա, about them.

## II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as follows:—*մո*, my; *ծո*, thy; *ա*, his or her; *ն*, our; *նա* or *նաւ*, your; *ա*, their. The three possessives, *ա*, his, *ա*, her, and *ա*, their, are distinguished by the initial letter changes of the next word. (See pages 14, 16, 17; see also Syntax.)

2. The *o* of *մո* and *ծո* is omitted before a vowel or before *բ*; as *մ'աճալի*, my father; *մ'բարան*, my land. And *ծո* is often changed, before a vowel, to *տ*, *ժ*, and *ի*; as *տ'աճալի*, *ժ'աճալի*, or *ի-աճալի*, thy father.

3. The possessive pronouns also take the emphatic increase, with this peculiarity, however, that the emphatic particle always follows the noun that comes after the possessive, or if the noun be qualified by one or more adjectives, the emphatic particle comes last of all; and, in accordance with the rule *caol le caol*, its vowel is generally broad or slender according as the last vowel of the word it follows is broad or slender; as *մո շեաճ-րա*, my house, or my own house; *մո շեաճ մօր խիճե-լի*, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by *բնի*, (Par. 4, page 38), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as *մո շեաճ-րա բնի*, my own house.

## POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. The possessive pronouns are amalgamated with prepositions, much in the same way as the personal pronouns; as *բելի* *բարնաճ ծմ իրօրժե*, bear a blessing *from my* heart.

2. The following are the most important of these combinations:—

Ան, *in.*

Singular.
ան, ամ', in my.
ած, օծ', in thy.
լոննա, լնա, 'նա, in his or her,

Plural.
լնաւ, 'նաւ, in our.
—
լոնա, լնա, 'նա, in their.

## Do, to.

Singular.	Plural.
dom, dom', to my.	daμ, d'aμ, to our.
dod, dod', to thy.	—
dá, d'a, to his or her.	dá, d'a, to their.

## le, with.

lem, lem', with my.	lep, le'p, with our.
led, led', with thy.	—
lena, le η-a, with his or her.	lena, le η-a, with their.

## O or ua, from.

óm, óm', from my.	oár, ó'p, from our.
ód, ód', from thy.	—
óna, ó η-a, from his or her.	óna, o ηa, from their.

3. Those that are identical in form and different in meaning are distinguished by the initial letter changes they produce in the next word; as óna éiḡ, from his house; óna eiḡ, from her house; óna d-eiḡ, from their house.

4. These combinations can also take the emphatic increase, like those of the personal pronouns, with the peculiarity, however, noticed in Par. 3, above; as óm éiḡ mór aμd-ḡa, from my great high house.

## III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish: -a, who, which, that; noč, who, which, that; nač, which not; as aη té a buaḡear, the person who strikes; aη liaiḡ noč a deip zo b-ḡuḡl tú rlan, the physician that says that you are well; aη té noč b-ḡuḡl laiḡdip, ní ḡulaip dó béicḡ ḡic, "the person who is not strong, it is necessary for him to be wise."

2. Oa sometimes takes the place of the relative a; and in some grammars it is counted as a distinct relative pronoun; as táid na ḡaolta ip ḡeáip aḡum dá b-ḡuḡl a d-talaḡ 'Eipeann, "I have the best friends *that are* (to be found) in the land of Erin." And sometimes do stands for the relative a.

3. The relative a has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that;" as beip beannačt cum a maipmann de ḡolḡaič Jp a'ḡ Eibip, "bear a blessing to *all that* live of the seed of Ir and Eber;" a b-ḡuḡl ran talaḡ d'aicme 2Wḡaḡne, "*all that are* in the land of the tribe of Maine."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

## IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are ro, this, these; rih, that, those; rúo or úd, yonder; as an ḡeap ro, this man; na mḡa rih, those women; rúo í ḡḡor, "yonder she (moves) below."

## V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—  
 cīa or cē, who? cā, what? where? cad or cneud, what? as  
 cīa ēmučaiž tū? who created thee? cad deīu tū? what sayest  
 thou? ca b-ful an fean rīn? where is that man? cneud īr  
 ēījīn? what is necessary?

## VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:—

aon, one.	ceac̃taī, either.
ēījīn, some, certain.	uīle, all.
eīle, oīle, other.	a cēīle, each other.
cāc̃, all.	an cē, an tī, the person who.
žac̃, each, every.	cīa b'ē, cīb'ē, jīb'ē, whoever.
žac̃ uīle, every.	

2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined; except cāc̃, which has a genitive form, cāīc̃; and žac̃, which is sometimes made žač̃a in the genitive.

## CHAPTER V.

## THE VERB.

1. Irish verbs are inflected for number, person, mood, tense, and voice.

2. The conjugation is arranged, not according to the initial changes, but according to terminations.

3. As to the initial changes:—See pages 15 and 55 for the particles that aspirate, and page 17 for the particles that eclipse, the initials of verbs.

## I. PERSONS: SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC FORMS.

1. The verb has three persons singular and three persons plural; and it has inflections for the whole six in the indicative and conditional moods of the active voice, except in one tense of the indicative.

2. The six forms of the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, of the verb tōž, take, are as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. tōžaiī, I take.	1. tōžamaoīd, we take.
2. tōžaiīu, thou takest.	2. tōžēaoī, ye take.
3. tōžaiīd rē, he takes.	3. tōžaiīd, they take.

3. This is what is called the synthetic form of the verb. The synthetic form is that in which the persons are expressed by inflections or terminations,

4. These six forms express the sense perfectly, without the accompaniment of the pronouns (except in the case of the third person singular): that is τὸζαῖν, as it stands, without using along with it the pronoun τῦ, thou, expresses perfectly "thou takest;" and so of the others.

5. But there is another way of expressing the persons, singular and plural, namely, by using one form of the verb for the whole six, and putting in the pronouns to distinguish the persons and numbers. This is what is called the analytic form of the verb.

6. In this analytic mode of expressing the persons and numbers, the form of the verb that is used is the same as the form for the third person singular; and the persons, singular and plural, are expressed as follows:—

- |                            |                           |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. τὸζαῖδ μέ, I take.      | 1. τὸζαῖδ ῖν, we take.    |
| 2. τὸζαῖδ τῦ, thou takest. | 2. τὸζαῖδ ῖς, ye take.    |
| 3. τὸζαῖδ ῖ, he takes.     | 3. τὸζαῖδ ῖαδ, they take. |

7. The third singular of the verb is not a synthetic form like the other five, that is, it does not include the pronoun as they do. In the third person singular, therefore, the pronoun must be always expressed in order to distinguish the number and person; unless there is a noun, or that the nominative is in some other way obvious from the construction.

8. But generally speaking it is not allowable to express any other pronoun along with the corresponding synthetic form of the verb:—For example, it would be wrong to say δέαηαιν μέ or δέαηαιαῖδ ῖν, both expressions being tautological.

9. This rule, in the case of the third person plural, however, is sometimes not observed; for such expressions as μοῖαῖδ ῖαδ and μοῖαῖδ ῖαδ—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though μοῖαῖδ or μοῖαῖδ alone would answer. And a like construction (in the third plural) is often used when the nominative is a plural noun, both in the present and in the past tense; as τῖαῖαῖδ ηῖς ὠῖαδ, "the sons of Milé go; ηῖαῖ δὸ ὀηαδαι ηῖα ὠῖαῖτε, "when the druids saw."

10. The emphatic particles may be postfixed to all the persons of verbs, in the same manner as to pronouns and nouns (p. 38); as μοῖαιν-ρε, I praise; μοῖαιν-ρε, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word ῖν (p. 38) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic; as δὸ ὠῖαιν-ρε ῖν μοῖαῖδ ὠῖαδ, "I myself would put my child to sleep."

11. The general tendency of modern languages is to drop synthetic forms, and to become more analytic. The English language, for example, has lost nearly all its inflections, and supplied their place by prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and auxiliary verbs. Following this tendency, the synthetic forms of the Irish verb are falling into disuse in the spoken language; and it has been already

remarked (page 26) that the noun-inflection *ib* is no longer used in speaking.\* But all these forms are quite common in even the most modern Irish books; and the learner must, therefore, make himself quite familiar with them.

## II. TENSES.

1. In English a regular verb has only two different forms to express tense:—I love, I loved; all the other tenses are expressed by means of auxiliaries.

2. In Irish, a regular verb has five different forms in the indicative mood for tense. Reckoning those tenses only which are expressed by inflection, an Irish regular verb has therefore FIVE TENSES in the indicative mood.

3. The five tenses, with the synthetic forms for the first person singular of the regular verb *ḡoill*, call, are:—

(1.) The present; *ḡoillim*, I call.

(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; *ḡoilleann mé*, I am in the habit of calling.

(3.) The past, or simple past, or perfect (for it is known by all these three names); *do ḡoillear*, I called.

(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; *do ḡoillínn*, I used to call, or I used to be calling.

(5.) The future; *ḡoillfead*, I shall or will call.

## III. MOODS AND VOICES.

1. The Irish regular verb has four moods:—The Imperative, the Indicative, the Conditional, and the Infinitive. These are the only moods for which the regular verb has distinct inflections.

2. There are, indeed, other moods, which are expressed, not by inflection, but by means of certain conjunctions and particles set before the verb; and these additional moods are given in conjugation in some Irish grammars; but as their forms do not differ from the forms of the five given above, they are not included here.

3. It is only the indicative mood of the verb that has tense inflection; in each of the other moods there is only one tense.

4. There are two voices, the active and the passive. It is only in the active voice that there are personal inflections; in the passive voice, the three persons singular and the three persons plural have all six the same form, rendering it necessary, of course, that the pronoun be always expressed when there is no noun.

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\* This is true only in certain parts of Ireland; in Connaught it is very generally pronounced.



## IV. CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

buaլ, *strike*.

## ACTIVE VOICE.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

- |                                  |                                |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. . . . .                       | 1. buaլիմի՛ր, let us strike.   |
| 2. buaլ, strike thou.            | 2. buaլի՛ծ, strike ye.         |
| 3. buaլlead ը՛հ, let him strike. | 3. buaլիժի՛ր, let them strike. |

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

- |                            |                          |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. buaլիմ, I strike.       | 1. buaլիմի՛ծ, we strike. |
| 2. buaլիր, thou striketh.  | 2. buaլի՛ց, ye strike.   |
| 3. buaլիժ ը՛հ, he strikes. | 3. buaլիժ, they strike.  |

*Consuetudinal or Habitual Present.*buaլleadոյ մե՛, *I usually strike.**(The same form for all persons and numbers.)**Past.*

- |                            |                            |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. buaլear, I struck.      | 1. buaլearաւ, we struck.   |
| 2. buaլիր, thou struckest. | 2. buaլeabաւ, ye struck.   |
| 3. buaլ ը՛հ, he struck.    | 3. buaլleadաւ, they struck |

*Consuetudinal Past.*

- |                                     |                                    |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. buaլիոյ, I used to strike.       | 1. buaլիմի՛ր, we used to strike.   |
| 2. buaլե՛ս, thou usedst to strike.  | 2. buaլի՛ց, ye used to strike.     |
| 3. buaլlead ը՛հ, he used to strike. | 3. buaլիժի՛ր, they used to strike. |

*Future*

- |                                 |                                |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. buaլբեաժ, I will strike.     | 1. buaլբիմի՛ծ, we will strike. |
| 2. buaլբիր, thou wilt strike.   | 2. buaլբի՛ծ, ye will strike.   |
| 3. buaլբիժ ը՛հ, he will strike. | 3. buaլբիժ, they will strike.  |

*(For the relative form of this tense, see page 49).*

## CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- |                                    |                                   |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. buaլբիոյ, I would strike.       | 1. buaլբիմի՛ր, we would strike.   |
| 2. buaլբե՛ս, thou wouldst strike.  | 2. buaլբի՛ծ, ye would strike.     |
| 3. buaլբեաժ, ը՛հ, he would strike. | 3. buaլբիժի՛ր, they would strike. |

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Օօ bualað, *to strike.*

## PARTICIPLE.

ԱՅ bualað, *striking.*

## PASSIVE VOICE.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

(*The same as the Indicative Present.*)

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

## Singular.

1. buajłteapı mē, I am struck.
2. buajłteapı ćú, thou struck.
3. buajłteapı é, he is struck.

## Plural.

1. buajłteapı rıññ or ıññ, we are struck.
2. buajłteapı rıb or ıb, ye are struck.
3. buajłteapı ıad, they are struck.

*Consuetudinal Present.*

(*Same as the Indicative Present.*)

*Past.*

1. buajleað mē, I was struck.
2. buajleað ćú, thou wast struck.
3. buajleað é, he was struck.
1. buajleað rıññ or ıññ, we were struck.
2. buajleað rıb or ıb, ye were struck.
3. buajleað ıad, they were struck.

*Consuetudinal Past.*

1. buajłćı mē, I used to be struck.
2. buajłćı ćú, thou usedst to be struck.
3. buajłćı é, he used to be struck.
1. buajłćı rıññ or ıññ, we used to be struck.
2. buajłćı rıb or ıb, ye used to be struck.
3. buajłćı ıad, they used to be struck.

*Future.*

1. buajłpeapı mē, I shall or will be struck.
2. buajłpeapı ćú, thou shalt or wilt be struck.
3. buajłpeapı é, he shall or will be struck.
1. buajłpeapı rıññ or ıññ, we shall or will be struck.
2. buajłpeapı rıb or ıb, ye shall or will be struck.
3. buajłpeapı ıad, they shall or will be struck.

## CONDITIONAL MOOD.

## Singular.

1. buaɪɫɛ́ðe mĕ, I would be struck.
2. buaɪɫɛ́ðe cú, thou wouldst be struck.
3. buaɪɫɛ́ðe é, he would be struck.

## Plural.

1. buaɪɫɛ́ðe rɪnn or ɪnn, we would be struck.
2. buaɪɫɛ́ðe rɪb or ɪb, ye would be struck.
3. buaɪɫɛ́ðe ɪad, they would be struck.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beɪɾ buaɪɫe, *to be struck.*

## PARTICIPLE.

buaɪɫe, *struck.*

## IV. RELATIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

1. Besides the forms given in the preceding conjugation, the verb has what is called a "relative form," *i.e.*, a form used after a relative pronoun. In two of the tenses of the indicative mood, namely, the present and the future, the relative form has a distinct inflection, *viz.*, aɪ, eaɪ, or ɪoɪ.

2. For instance, "the person who calls," is translated, not by aɪ tĕ a ʒoɪɪɪð (3rd singular form), but by aɪ tĕ a ʒoɪɪeaɪ; and "he who will steal," is not aɪ tĕ a ʒoɪðɛɪð (3rd singular form), but aɪ tĕ a ʒoɪðɛeaɪ. In other tenses and moods the relative form is the same as that of the third person singular.

3. This form of the verb is often used even when its nominative is not a relative, but a noun or personal pronoun, to express the "historical present," *i.e.*, the present tense used for the past; as ɛɪaɛɪaɪʒeaɪ ʒɪɪɪɪɪɪ a ɪ-aɪɪɪ ðɪ, "Amergin *asks* her name of her." (See for a further account of the historical present, p. 50)

4. And not unfrequently the relative form is used as an ordinary present; as, ɪɪ mĕɪ aɪ t-ɪoɪɪɪa ɪɪomɪa, ɪaċ ð'ðɪɪɪɪ ɪaɪɪeaɪ ɛɪonn mɪɪe, "It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisín Finn *seeks* (ɪaɪɪeaɪ) me."

## 3

## V. FORMATION AND USES OF THE MOODS AND TENSES OF REGULAR VERBS.

1. The second person singular of the imperative mood, active voice, is the root or simplest form of the verb, from which all the other persons, moods, and tenses are formed directly, by affixing the various terminations.

2. Verbs which end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel have all their inflections precisely alike those of buaɪɫ (with the exception mentioned in Par. 4, page 52); and they all begin with a slender vowel (except sometimes that of the infinitive) in accordance with the rule caoll e caol, &c.

3. But when the final consonant is preceded by a broad vowel, the synthetic terminations begin with a broad vowel, in accordance with the same rule. A table of the full conjugation of a regular verb, ending in a broad vowel, is given at page 55.

4. The root generally remains unchanged through all the variations of the verb, except that it occasionally suffers a trifling change in the infinitive. The cases in which the root suffers change in the infinitive are mentioned in Par. 4, page 51. See also Par. 8, page 53.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

##### *Present Tense.*

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations  $\text{im}$  (or  $\alpha\text{im}$ ),  $\text{iu}$  (or  $\alpha\text{iu}$ ), &c., to the root.

2. The historical present *i.e.*, that is the present tense used for the past, or where past time is intended, is very common in Irish; indeed in many narrative and historical pieces it occurs quite as often as the ordinary past tense in relating past transactions; as,  $\text{Oala } \text{Jc}$ ,  $\text{iomoruo}$ ,  $\text{ollhu}\dot{\text{u}}\text{jea}\text{u}$   $\text{long leiu}$ , "as to Ith, indeed, a ship is prepared by him" (instead of  $\text{ollhu}\dot{\text{u}}\text{jea}\delta$ , was prepared).

3. It has been already remarked (Par. 3, page 49), that the relative form of the verb is often used for the historical present; as  $\text{nocta}\text{u}$   $\text{Eimem}\dot{\text{o}}\text{n}$   $\text{d}\dot{\text{o}}\text{ib}$ , "Eremon reveals to them."

##### *Consuetudinal Past and Present.*

1. These tenses express customary action; as  $\text{le}\dot{\text{u}}\text{jea}\text{u}\eta$   $\text{m}\acute{\text{e}}$ , I am in the habit of reading;  $\text{le}\dot{\text{u}}\text{jea}\delta$   $\text{r}\acute{\text{e}}$ , he used to read, or he was in the habit of reading.

2. In the sentences, "I write always after breakfast," and "he sold bread in his youth," the verbs "write" and "sold" are used in the same manner as the Irish consuetudinal tense; except, indeed, that the idea is not so distinctly marked by the English phrase as by the Irish.

3. One of the particles  $\text{do}$  or  $\text{po}$  is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial consonant is generally aspirated; as  $\text{do } \text{fo}\text{iu}\text{d}\dot{\text{o}}\text{ir}$ , they used to call.

4. The Irish peasantry seem to feel the want of these two tenses when they are speaking English; and they often, in fact, attempt to import them into the English language, even in districts where no Irish has been spoken for generations; thus they will say, "I do be reading while you do be writing;" "I used to be walking every day while I lived in the country," &c.

##### *Past Tense.*

1. In the past tense the initial consonant is aspirated in the active voice, but not in the passive voice.

2. With the exception of the aspiration, the third singular past tense is the same as the root.

3. One of the particles *do* or *no* is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as *do fearar*, I stood; *no éodlaír*, thou sleepedst; *do molað iad*, they were praised; *no buaileadh é*, he was struck.

4. The particle *no*, used as a mark of the past tense, is often compounded with other particles, the *n* only being retained, but it still causes aspiration in the active voice, as if it were uncompounded.

The principal of these compounds are:—

(1.) *Ar*, whether? from *an* and *no*; as *ar buaíl ré*, did he strike?

(2.) *Suir*, that, from *go* and *no*; as *cneidim suir buaíl ré*, I believe that he struck.

(3.) *Muna*, unless, from *muna* and *no*; as *muna buaíl ré* unless he struck.

(4.) *Nacair*, or *na'ir*, or *nair*, whether not? from *nac* and *no*; as *nair buaíl ré*, did not he strike?

(5.) *Níor*, not, from *ní* and *no*; as *níor buaíl ré*, he did not strike.\*

6. The particle *no*, as a sign of past tense, is also often combined with the relative pronoun *a*; as *an fear a d'ar zeallar mo leabhar*, the man *to whom* I promised my book. For a further account of this, see Syntax.

### *Future Tense.*

1. All the personal inflections of this tense, in both voices, begin with the letter *f*, which, in the spoken language, is often sounded like *h*; thus *dúnfad*, I shall shut, is colloquially pronounced *doonhad* (instead of *doonfad*).

### CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. The particle *do*, causing aspiration, is often prefixed to verbs in the conditional mood; as *do fíubálfaínn*, I would walk.

2. But very often also *dá*, if, or *muna*, unless, is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is eclipsed; as *dá b-faḡaínn-ré mo roḡa*, "if I would get my choice;" *muna m-beiḡead ré*, "unless he would be."

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\* See Second Irish Book, by the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language.

3. It is important to note that the personal inflections of this mood in both voices, as well as those of the future indicative, all begin with *ῥ*.

#### INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. The initial is aspirated in the infinitive, whether the particle *do* or *α* be expressed or understood. But in some cases the aspiration is prevented by other grammatical influences, as shown in next paragraph.

2. When the infinitive is preceded by one of the possessive pronouns, the initial of the verb falls under the influence of the pronoun.\*

(1.) It is aspirated for *α*, his; *μο*, my; *δο*, thy (but here the influence of the pronoun is not perceived, as there would be aspiration without it); as *δα ζῶναδ*, to wound him (literally to his wounding, and so of the others); *δο μ'ζῶναδ*, to wound me; *δο δ'ζῶναδ*, to wound thee.

(2.) It is preserved from aspiration by *α*, her; as *δα ζῶναδ*, to wound her.

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural possessives; as *δαν η-ζῶναδ*, to wound us; *δο συν η-ζῶναδ*, to wound you; *δα η-ζῶναδ*, to wound them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is by adding *αδ* or *εαδ*, the first when the last vowel of the root is broad; the second when the vowel is slender.

4. If the final consonant of the root be preceded by *ι* as part of a diphthong or triphthong, the final vowel is made broad in the infinitive (which is usually, but not always, done by dropping the *ι*); as *βuai*, *bualaδ*, to strike; *ζοιη*, *ζῶναδ*, to wound. But if the final consonant be preceded by *ι* alone, the infinitive is formed according to the general rule in the last paragraph; as *μηλλ*, *μηλλεαδ*, to destroy.

5. The infinitives of many verbs are formed irregularly, and these must be learned by practice. The following are a few of such verbs. Each group exhibits a particular type, in which the manner of forming the infinitive will be obvious on inspection:—

#### Root or Imperative.

*εαζ*.  
*ῥηαιη*.  
*οι*.

#### Infinitive.

*δ'εαζ*, to die.  
*δο ῥηαιη*, to swim.  
*δ'οι*, to drink.

---

\* For the influence of the possessive pronouns, see pages 15, 17, and see also *Syntax*.

## Root or imperative.

ταρταιηζ.

cuη.

ζοι.

ηηη.

ηηζι.

διβηη.

ceη.

φαζ.

ζαβ.

τοζ.

lean.

caηη.

οη.

φοηη.

ζλυαιη.

ειη.

## Infinitive.

δο ταρταιηζ, to draw.

δο cuη, to put.

δο ζοι, to weep.

δ'ηηηη, to play.

δ'ηηζιη, to graze.

δο διβηη, to banish.

δο ceη, to conceal.

δ'φαζβεη, to leave.

δο ζαβαη, to take.

δο τοζβαη, to lift.

δο leanαιη, to follow.

δο caηηαιη, to lose.

δ'οηleanαιη, to nourish.

δ'φοηηleanαιη, to suit.

δο ζλυαιηα, to move.

δ'ειηηα, to listen.

## THE PARTICIPLE.

1. The active participle is merely the infinitive mood, with some such particle as αζ prefixed; as αζ buααδ, at beating, or a-beating.

2. The passive participle is generally formed by adding τε or ε when the last vowel of the root is slender, and τα or εα, when broad.

When the root ends in ε, δ, ι, η, ηη, ρ, ε, or ζ (except verbs in ηζ or ιζ), the τ of the participial termination retains its sound: after any other consonant, and also in verbs in ηζ or ιζ, the τ is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations ταη and εη follow the same law.

## VI. VERBS IN ηζ, &amp;c.

1. Verbs of two or more syllables, with the root ending in ηζ, or ιζ, and some other dissyllabic verbs ending in ιλ, ηη, ηη, and ρ, differ so decidedly from the model verb in the formation of some of their moods and tenses, that some writers,\* not without reason, class them as a second conjugation.

2. The difference lies in the formation of the future and of the conditional in both voices; the other moods and tenses are formed like those of buαη.

3. In buαη, and all other verbs of its kind, the letter ρ is a characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional mood in both voices, as stated in Par. 3, page 52.

\* As, for instance, the Rev. Canon Bourke, in his "College Irish Grammar."

4. The verbs now under consideration have no *f* in the future and conditional, but they take instead *eó*, before the final consonant of the root.

5. In addition to this change, verbs in *u1ḡ* and *1ḡ* change *ḡ* into *ċ*; though in the spoken language, both of Munster and of Connaught, the *ḡ* retains its place.

6. There is no other inflectional difference between these verbs and *buai1*, the personal terminations following the final consonant of the root being the same in all cases.

7. In the other tenses of the indicative, verbs in *11*, *1ḡ*, *111*, and *1111* are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root-consonant; as *codai1*, sleep; *cod1ai1ḡ*, I sleep, &c. (But this change is not regarded as a grammatical inflection).

8. Verbs in *u1ḡ* almost always form their infinitive by dropping *1* and adding the usual termination *aḡ*; those in *1ḡ* alone (not preceded by *u*), retain the *1* and take *u* after it in the infinitive; as *coḡai1ċu1ḡ*, mark; infinitive, *coḡai1ċu1ḡaḡ*; *coḡai111ḡ*, advise; infinitive, *coḡai111ḡu1ḡaḡ*.

9. Sometimes there are other slight changes, caused chiefly by the rule *caol le caol*, &c., which will be obvious on inspection.

10. The following are a few examples of the formation of the present and future indicative, and of the conditional mood, in such verbs. The first person singular only is given in each case, as the other persons have the same terminations as *buai1* and *meall*:—

Root or imperative.	Pres. indicative.	Future indicative.	Conditional Mood.
<i>Dḡu1ḡ</i> , direct.	<i>dḡu1ḡ1ḡ</i>	<i>dḡ1eócaḡ</i> .	<i>dḡ1eócaḡ1ḡ</i> .
<i>ḡu1aḡu1ḡ</i> , love.	<i>ḡu1aḡu1ḡ1ḡ</i> .	<i>ḡu1aḡ1eócaḡ</i> .	<i>ḡu1aḡ1eócaḡ1ḡ</i> .
<i>1aḡai1ḡ</i> , speak.	<i>1aḡai1ḡ1ḡ</i> .	<i>1aḡ1eó1ḡaḡ</i> .	<i>1aḡ1eó1ḡaḡ1ḡ</i> .
<i>ḡai1ḡu1ḡ</i> , draw.	<i>ḡai1ḡ1ḡ1ḡ</i> .	<i>ḡai1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ</i> .	<i>ḡai1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ1ḡ</i> .
<i>ḡo1ḡai1</i> , open.	<i>ḡo1ḡai1ḡ1ḡ</i> .	<i>ḡo1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ</i> .	<i>ḡo1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ1ḡ</i> .
<i>Co1ḡai1ḡ</i> , defend.	<i>co1ḡai1ḡ1ḡ</i> .	<i>co1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ</i> .	<i>co1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ1ḡ</i> .
<i>1ḡḡai1ḡ</i> , tell.	<i>1ḡḡai1ḡ1ḡ</i> .	<i>1ḡḡ1eó1ḡaḡ</i> .	<i>1ḡḡ1eó1ḡaḡ1ḡ</i> .
<i>Oḡ1ḡai1ḡ</i> , banish.	<i>oḡ1ḡai1ḡ1ḡ</i> .	<i>oḡ1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ</i> .	<i>oḡ1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ1ḡ</i> .

11. In Munster, verbs in *11*, *1ḡ*, *111*, and *1111*, are conjugated like those in *u1ḡ* or *1ḡ*; and the *eó* comes *after* the final consonant: thus *dḡ1ḡai1ḡ*, banish is made in the future and conditional, *dḡ1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ* and *dḡ1ḡ1eó1ḡaḡ1ḡ*, as if the verb were *dḡ1ḡai1ḡ*.

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in *u1ḡ* (*ai1ḡu1ḡ*) is given at page 56.



ACTIVE VOICE.			PASSIVE VOICE.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.	1. meall 2. meall-að ré 3. meall-að ré	meall-aþaοiŕ meall-aþ meall-aþŕŕ	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
Pres. Tense.	1. meall-aþ 2. meall-aþn 3. meall-aþ ré	meall-aþaοið meall-aοi meall-aþ	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-aþn} \\ \text{meall-aþ} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mð} \\ \text{tú} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{meall-aþn} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{rinn, rinn} \\ \text{rīb, rīb} \\ \text{lað} \end{array} \right\}$	
Consuet. present.	1. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-} \\ \text{aþn} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mð} \\ \text{tú} \\ \text{ré} \end{array}$ 2. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-} \\ \text{aþn} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mð} \\ \text{tú} \\ \text{ré} \end{array}$ 3. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-} \\ \text{aþn} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{mð} \\ \text{tú} \\ \text{ré} \end{array}$	meall-aþn meall-aþn meall-aþn	Same form as the Present.	
Simple past.	1. iþeall-aŕ 2. iþeall-aŕ 3. iþeall-ré	meall-aþaŕ iþeall-aþaŕ iþeall-aþaŕ	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-að} \\ \text{meall-að} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mð} \\ \text{tú} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{meall-að} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{rinn, rinn} \\ \text{rīb, rīb} \\ \text{lað} \end{array} \right\}$	
Consuet. past.	1. meall-aþn 2. meall-aþ 3. iþeall-að ré	meall-aþaοiŕ iþeall-aοi iþeall-aþŕŕ	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-að} \\ \text{meall-að} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mð} \\ \text{tú} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{meall-að} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{rinn, rinn} \\ \text{rīb, rīb} \\ \text{lað} \end{array} \right\}$	
Future.	1. meall-að 2. meall-aþn 3. meall-aþ ré	meall-aþaοið meall-aþð meall-aþð	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{meall-aþn} \\ \text{meall-aþn} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mð} \\ \text{tú} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{meall-aþn} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{rinn, rinn} \\ \text{rīb, rīb} \\ \text{lað} \end{array} \right\}$	
Conditional Mood.	1. iþeall-aþn 2. iþeall-aþ 3. iþeall-að ré	iþeall-aþaοiŕ iþeall-aþð iþeall-aþaοiŕ	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{iþeall-aþð} \\ \text{iþeall-aþð} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mð} \\ \text{tú} \\ \text{é} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{iþeall-aþð} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{rinn, rinn} \\ \text{rīb, rīb} \\ \text{lað} \end{array} \right\}$	
Infinitive Mood, do meall-að.			Infinitive Mood, do bezt meall-að.	
Participle, aþ meall-að.			Participle, meall-að.	

Indicative Mood.



## VII. IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. There are fourteen irregular verbs, several of which are defective, *i.e.*, want one or more of the moods and tenses. The conjugation of some of them, it will be observed, is made up of those of two or more different verbs.

2. It will also be observed that through all their irregularities, the five synthetic personal terminations remain unchanged; for which reason it is scarcely correct to call these verbs irregular at all.

3. The irregular verbs are as follows:—(1), *տֳֿսִֿմ*, I am; (2), the assertive verb *լր*; (3), *ձեյլմ*, I give; (4), *ձեյլմ*, I bear; (5), *ճիմ*, I see (including *բեյլմ*); (6), *ժլիլմ*, I hear; (7), *ձեօղմ*, I do; (8), *ձիլմ* or *ղիլմ*, I do; (9), *ձեյլմ*, I say; (10), *բօջմ* or *ձեյլմ*, I find; (11), *լիլմ*, I eat; (12), *լիլմ*, I reach; (13), *ժեյլմ*, I go; (14), *լիլմ*, I come.

4. the following is the synthetic conjugation of the irregular verbs (except in the case of the second verb *լր*, which has no synthetic conjugation). They may be all conjugated analytically, by using the third person singular of each tense with ~~the~~ three personal pronouns, singular and plural, as shown in case of the regular verb, *տօջալծ*, at page 45. As an example, the analytic conjugation of the present tense of the first verb, *տֳֿսִֿմ*, is given.

(1.) *Տֳֿսִֿմ*, *I am.*

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

## Singular.

## Plural.

- |   |                                 |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 1. . . . .  | 1. <i>Բիլմիլ</i> , let us be,   |
| 2. <i>Բի</i> , be thou.                                 | 2. <i>Բիլծիլծ</i> , be ye.      |
| 3. <i>Բիլծեալծ իլ</i> , or <i>Բիլծ իլ</i> , let him be. | 3. <i>Բիլծիլ</i> , let them be. |

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>տֳֿսִֿմ</i> , <i>ալծալծալծ</i> , I am.    | 1. <i>տֳֿսִֿմալծ</i> , <i>ալծալծալծալծ</i> , we are.   |
| 2. <i>տֳֿսִֿլ</i> , <i>ալծալծլ</i> , thou art.  | 2. <i>տֳֿսִֿալծալծ</i> , <i>ալծալծալծալծ</i> , ye are. |
| 3. <i>տֳֿսִֿ իլ</i> , <i>ալծալծ իլ</i> , he is. | 3. <i>տֳֿսִֿլծ</i> , <i>ալծալծլծ</i> , they are.       |

*Present Tense: analytic conjugation.*

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 1. <i>տֳֿսִֿ միլ</i> , <i>ալծալծ միլ</i> , I am.     | 1. <i>տֳֿսִֿ իլիլղ</i> , <i>ալծալծ իլիլղ</i> , we are.  |
| 2. <i>տֳֿսִֿ տիլ</i> , <i>ալծալծ տիլ</i> , thou art. | 2. <i>տֳֿսִֿ իլծ</i> , <i>ալծալծ իլծ</i> , ye are.      |
| 3. <i>տֳֿսִֿ իլ</i> , <i>ալծալծ իլ</i> , he is.      | 3. <i>տֳֿսִֿ իլալծ</i> , <i>ալծալծ իլալծ</i> , they are |

*Consuetudinal Present.*

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 1. Բիծլմ, I am usually.                  | 1. Բիմիծ, Բիծմիծ, Բիծմաօլծ, we are usually. |
| 2. Բիծլն, thou art usually.              | 2. Բիժի, Բիծժի, ye are usually.             |
| 3. Բիծեաղ ռե, or Բիօղ ռե, he is usually. | 3. Բիծ, Բիծլծ, they are usually.            |

*Interrogative and Negative Present.*

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, page 59.)

- |                               |                                |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Ո՞ր Բ-բալլմ, I am not.*    | 1. Ո՞ր Բ-բալլմիծ, we are not.  |
| 2. Ո՞ր Բ-բալլն, thou art not. | 2. Ո՞ր Բ-բալլիժի, ye are not.  |
| 3. Ո՞ր Բ-բալլ ռե, he is not.  | 3. Ո՞ր Բ-բալլիծ, they are not. |

*Past Tense.*

- |                            |                                 |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Բիծեալ, Բիօր, I was.    | 1. Բիծեալմալ, Բիօլմալ, we were. |
| 2. Բիծլր, Բիլր, thou wert. | 2. Բիծեալն, Բիօլն, ye were.     |
| 3. Բիծ ռե, Բի ռե, he was.  | 3. Բիծեալալ, Բիօլալ, they were. |

*Consuetudinal Past.*

- |                                       |                                      |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Բիծլող, Բիող, I used to be.        | 1. Բիծմիլր, Բիմիլր, we used to be.   |
| 2. Բիծժեա, Բիժեա, thou usedst to be.  | 2. Բիծժի, Բիժի, ye used to be.       |
| 3. Բիծեաժ ռե, Բիօժ ռե, he used to be. | 3. Բիծժիլր, Բիժիլր, they used to be. |

*Interrogative and Negative Past.*

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, page 59.)

- |                              |                                |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Ո՞ր լաժար, I was not.     | 1. Ո՞ր լաժարմալ, we were not.  |
| 2. Ո՞ր լաժար, thou wert not. | 2. Ո՞ր լաժարն, ye were not.    |
| 3. Ո՞ր լալի ռե, he was not.  | 3. Ո՞ր լաժարալ, they were not. |

*Future*

- |                           |                           |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Բեյծեաժ, I shall be.   | 1. Բեծմիծ, we shall be.   |
| 2. Բեյծլն, thou shalt be. | 2. Բեյծլի, ye shall be.   |
| 3. Բեյծ ռե, he shall be.  | 3. Բեյծլծ, they shall be. |

## CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- |                              |                            |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Բեյծլող, I would be.      | 1. Բեյծմիլր, we would be.  |
| 2. Բեյծժեա, thou wouldst be. | 2. Բեյծժի, ye would be.    |
| 3. Բեյծեաժ ռե, he would be.  | 3. Բեյծիլր, they would be. |

\* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the Բ-բալ were omitted in each case; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to ղիլմ, ղիլն, ղիլ ռե, &c.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Ծօ ելի՛, *to be.*

## PARTICIPLE.

Այ ելի՛, *being.*

1. Ծօ is commonly called the substantive verb, and answers to the verb "to be" in English.

2. It has two forms, which the regular verb has not, namely, a form in the present tense, for interrogation and negation, (Ե-բալլիմ), and a form in the past tense for the same (Դաւար). These two are classed by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood, present and past tense.

3. The forms Ե-բալլիմ and Դաւար are used only—

(a.) After negative and interrogative particles; as *իմ Ե-բալլ ընդհանր*, he is not sick; *իմ Դաւար մե ան ընդհանր*, I was not there: *ան Ե-բալլ ընդհանր իմ Ե-բալլ ընդհանր*? "Is there wine in your ships?" *Ան Դաւար աչ ան Ե-Կարրիք*? "Wert thou at the rock" (or at Carrick)? *Որ Դաւար Ե-բալլ ընդհանր աչ Ե-բալլ*, "Since I cannot escape from him" (lit. "since it is not with me to go from him"); *ան Ե-բալլ ա ընդհանր աչ Ե-բալլ*, *ա Ե-բալլ*? *Իմ Ե-բալլ, ան Ե-բալլ*, "Is the knowledge of it with thyself, O Finn?" "It is not," says Finn."

(But these forms are not used after the interrogative *Ենդհանր*, how?)

(b.) After *Ե*, that; as *Ե-բալլ Ե Ե-բալլ ընդհանր*, I say that he is well.

(c.) After the relative *ա* when it follows a preposition, or when it signifies "all that" (Par. 3, page 43); as *Ե-բալլ Ե ան Ե-բալլ ընդհանր ան Ե-բալլ*, *աչ ա Ե-բալլ ընդհանր Ե-բալլ*? "What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?" (lit. "with whom is a knowledge"); *ա Ե-բալլ Ե Ե-բալլ ընդհանր Ե-բալլ*, "All that is from Ath-cliath (Dublin) to Oilean mor an Bharraigh;" *Ե-բալլ Ե-բալլ ան Ե-բալլ*, *աչ Ե-բալլ Ե-բալլ*, "We pledge our word, that we do not think it little, *all that* we shall bring of them to Finn."

4. This verb, like verbs in general, has a relative form for the present and future; but the relative form of the present is always a consuetudinal tense (whereas in regular verbs it is generally not consuetudinal); as *Ե-բալլ ան Ե-Կարրիք Ե-բալլ* (or *Ե-բալլ*) *ան Ե-բալլ* *ան Ե-բալլ* *ան Ե-բալլ*, "in like manner death is (in the habit of) lying in wait always for man."

5. The analytic form of this verb is now far more common in the spoken language than the synthetic. In asking a question the analytic form is often preferred: but in answering, the synthetic; as *ան Ե-բալլ Ե-բալլ աչ ան Ե-Կարրիք*? *Ե-բալլ աչ ան Ե-Կարրիք*. "Were you at Carrick?" "I was at Carrick."

6. The letter *a* is often prefixed to the present tense both in speaking and writing: *acá* instead of *ta*, &c.; it is sometimes slightly emphatic, but often merely euphonic, and does not otherwise affect the meaning.

7. This verb is often used as an auxiliary, like the verb "to be" in English; and it is the only verb in the Irish language that can be regarded as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of *buailear mé*, I am struck, we can say *ta mé buailte*: for *do buaileadh mé*, I was struck, *do bí mé buailte*, &c.

(2.) *Jr*, it is.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

##### *Present Tense.*

*Jr*, it is: as, *jr mé*, it is I; *jr tú*, it is thou.

##### *Past Tense.*

*ba* or *buð*, it was; as *ba mé*, it was I.

##### *Future Tense.*

*buð* or *bur*, it will be.

#### CONDITIONAL MOOD.

*bað*, it would be.

1. This is commonly called the assertive verb.
2. It has no inflection for person, being always used in the third person singular: hence it is often called the impersonal verb.
3. It has no other moods and tenses besides those given above.
4. It takes other forms in the modern language, some of them contracted, which are often puzzling to learners.
5. After *zur*, that, it is often made *ab*, which is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood; as *creidim zur ab é acá cinn*, I believe that it is he (who) is sick: *measaim da réir rin, zur ab da bliagáin a zur fíce rui ruadh Abrahaim éanac Paréolón i n-Éirinn*, "I think, according to that, that it is two years and twenty before Abraham was born, that Partholon came to Erin."

6. Very often *zur ab* is shortened by omitting the *a*; as *creidim zur 'bé*, &c.; and sometimes the *b* is joined to *zur*, as *creidim zurb é*, &c.

7. After *má*, if, the *i* is omitted, as *má'r fíon é*, if it be true; and in this case the *r* is often joined to the *má*; as *már fíon é*; *már maic leac a beic bua, caic ruar a zur ceic*, "If you wish to be long-lived, drink cold and hot" (or "drink cold and flee"—a celebrated Irish saying of double meaning).

8. Sometimes *ba* or *bá* is shortened to *b* or *bá* alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as *laoc d'áru b'áim* *líru*, or *laoc d'arub áim* *líru*, "a hero whose name was Lir;" of which the full construction is, *laoc do a ru bá áim* *líru*, "a hero to whom was name Lir."

9. There is another form, *rá*, for the past tense, which is now disused, but which is constantly used by Keating, and by other writers of the 17th and 18th centuries: *rá tneárfeari, an Ceat ro*, "this Ceat was a mighty man;" *ír í (Banba) rá bean do Mac Coll, d'ar b'áim d'íor Eathur*, "it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;" or *é an Scoitbéarla rá teanfá coitceann ran Scitla an tmac do tnuall Neimhead áirde*, "Since it is the Scotie language which was the common tongue in Scythia in the time that Neimheadh emigrated from it."†

10. For the distinction between *ta* and *ir*, see Idioms.

(3.) *bheirim, I give.*

## ACTIVE VOICE.

### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

#### Singular.

1. . . .
2. *tabair.*
3. *tabair é.*

#### Plural.

1. *tabairiamair.*
2. *tabairid.*
3. *tabairadamair.*

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### First person Singular.

<i>Present :</i>	bheirim, tabairim, or tugaim.	}
<i>Consuet. Pres :</i>	bheireann.	
<i>Past :</i>	tugar.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	bheirinn, tugainn.	
<i>Future :</i>	béarfaid, tabarfaid.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	béarfaínn, tabarfaínn.	

INFINITIVE; *do tabairt.* PARTICIPLE; *ag tabairt.*

† For the various forms assumed by this verb, in the ancient language, see O'Donovan's most instructive article in his "Irish Grammar," page 161.

## PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE; ելլի՜ւն, տաճարի՜ն, տաճարի՜ն, դէ, ին, է, &c.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	ելլիւն, տաճար.	} ջէ, ին, է, &c.
<i>Past :</i>	տաճար.	
<i>Consuet. Past.</i>	ելլիւն, տաճար.	
<i>Future :</i>	եւրիւն, տաճար.	
<i>CONDITIONAL MOOD.</i>	եւրիւն, տաճար.	

*Infinitive ;* ըն ելլիւն, ըն ելլիւն.

*Participle ;* տաճար, տաճար.

1. This verb is made up of three different verbs: in some of the tenses any one of the three may be employed; in some, either of two; and in some only one; as shown in the paradigm.

2. In the present tense, ելլիւն (but not the other two verbs,) takes the particle ըն (which is a mark of the past in regular verbs), and commonly has its initial aspirated.

(4.) ելլիւն, *I bear.*

## ACTIVE VOICE.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. ելլիւնի.
2. ելլի.	2. ելլիւն.
3. ելլիւն ին.	3. ելլիւնի.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

## First Person Singular.

<i>Present :</i>	ելլիւն.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Consuet. Present :</i>	ելլիւն.	
<i>Past :</i>	եւրիւն.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	եւրիւն.	
<i>Future :</i>	եւրիւն.	
<i>Conditional Mood :</i>	եւրիւն.	

*Infinitive ;* ըն ելլիւն. *Participle ;* եւրիւն.



## PASSIVE VOICE.

*Imperative Mood*; beɪɪtʃeap mɛ́, t́ú, é, &c.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> :	beɪɪtʃeap.	} wɛ́, t́ú, é, &c.
<i>Past</i> :	ɲuʒað.	
<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	beɪɪtʃ.	
<i>Future</i> :	béapɪɪap.	
<i>Conditional Mood</i> :	béapɪɪaɪde.	

*Infinitive*; do beɪt beɪɪtʃe. *Participle*; beɪɪtʃe.

(5.) Čím, I see.

## ACTIVE VOICE.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. ɲeɪɪɲɪɲɪɲ, ɲeɪɪɲɪɲɪɲ.
2. ɲeɪɪ.	2. ɲeɪɪɲ.
3. ɲeɪɪceað ɲé.	3. ɲeɪɪɲɪɲɪɲ.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

1. čɪɲɪɲ, čím, ɲeɪɪɲɪɲ.	1. čɪɲɪɲɪɲ, čímɪɲ, ɲeɪɪɲɪɲɪɲ.
2. čɪɲɪɲ, čím, ɲeɪɪɲɪɲ.	2. čɪɲɪɲɪɲ, čímɪɲ, ɲeɪɪɲɪɲɪɲ.
3. čɪɲɪɲ ɲé, čɪɲ ɲé, ɲeɪɪɲɪɲ ɲé.	3. čɪɲɪɲ, čím, ɲeɪɪɲɪɲ.

*Consuet. Pres.*; čɪɲeapɲ, ɲeɪɪceapɲ, mɛ́, t́ú, é, &c.

*Past.*

1. čɲɲapɲapɲ.	1. čɲɲapɲapɲ.
2. čɲɲapɲapɲɪɲ.	2. čɲɲapɲapɲ.
3. čɲɲapɲɪɲ ɲé.	3. čɲɲapɲapɲ.

## First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	čɪɲɪɲɲ or čímɲ.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future</i> :	čɪɲɪɲeap or čímɪɲeap.	
<i>Conditional</i> }	čɪɲɪɲɲɲ, or čímɪɲɲ, or	
<i>Mood</i> :	čɪɲɪɲɲ.	

*Infinitive Mood*; d'ɲeɪɪɲɪɲ or d'ɲeɪɪɲɪɲɲ.

*Participle*; aʒ ɲeɪɪɲɪɲ or aʒ ɲeɪɪɲɪɲɲ.

## PASSIVE VOICE.

*Imperative Mood*; ƣeɹcȳeap, mē, ē, &c.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense</i> :	ċŋðȳeap or ƣeɹcȳeap.	} we, ē, &c.
<i>Past</i> :	conȳapcāð.	
<i>Past. Consuet.</i> :	ċŋðċŋ or ƣeɹcȳŋ.	
<i>Future</i> :	ċŋðȳeap or ƣeɹcȳeap.	
<i>Conditional Mood</i> :	{ ċŋðȳŋðe or ƣeɹcȳŋðe.	

*Infinitive Mood*; dō beɹȳ ƣeɹcȳe. *Participle*; ƣeɹcȳe.

1. ċŋðȳ is defective in some of its moods and tenses, which are supplied by other verbs—the imperative and infinitive by ƣeɹcȳ or ƣaɹcȳ, and the past indicative of both voices by an old verb—otherwise disused—conȳapcāȳ.

2. ƣeɹcȳ or ƣaɹcȳ, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs, to supply the defects of ċŋðȳ, is itself regular.

3. Observe that the initial of ċŋðȳ is *always* aspirated.

(6.) Cluȳȳ, *I hear*.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Past Tense*.

1. ċualap.	1. ċualamap.
2. ċualapȳ.	2. ċualabap.
3. ċualapð ƣē.	3. ċualadap.

*Infinitive Mood, Active*; dō clor or dō clorȳȳ.

*Participle, Active*; aȳ clor or aȳ clorȳȳ.

1. In all the other moods and tenses, cluȳȳ is regular, and is conjugated like buap.

(7.) dēapȳ, *I do*.

## ACTIVE VOICE.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

1. . . .	1. dēapȳ, dēapȳapȳȳ, dēapȳapȳð.
2. dēap.	2. dēapȳð.
3. dēapāð ƣē.	3. dēapȳðŋȳ.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Past Tense.*

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. $\mu\dot{\iota}\zeta\eta\epsilon\alpha\tau$ , $\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau\eta\alpha\tau$ , $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\tau$ .  | 1. $\mu\dot{\iota}\zeta\eta\epsilon\alpha\mu\alpha\tau$ , $\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau\eta\alpha\mu\alpha\tau$ , $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\mu\alpha\tau$ .          |
| 2. $\mu\dot{\iota}\zeta\eta\tau$ , $\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau\eta\alpha\tau$ , $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\tau$ .  | 2. $\mu\dot{\iota}\zeta\eta\epsilon\alpha\beta\alpha\tau$ , $\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau\eta\alpha\beta\alpha\tau$ , $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\beta\alpha\tau$ .    |
| 3. $\mu\dot{\iota}\zeta\eta\epsilon$ $\tau\acute{\epsilon}$ , $\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau\eta\alpha\delta$ $\tau\acute{\epsilon}$ , $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta$ $\tau\acute{\epsilon}$ . | 3. $\mu\dot{\iota}\zeta\eta\epsilon\alpha\delta\alpha\tau$ , $\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau\eta\alpha\delta\alpha\tau$ , $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\delta\alpha\tau$ . |

## First Person Singular.

<i>Present :</i>	$\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\tau\eta$ .	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Consuet. Pres. :</i>	$\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\eta\eta$ .	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	$\zeta\eta\delta\iota\eta\eta$ , $\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau\eta\alpha\tau\eta\eta$ , $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\tau\eta\eta$ .	
<i>Future :</i>	$\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha\delta$ .	
<i>Conditional Mood :</i>	$\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha\tau\eta\eta$ .	

*Infinitive Mood :*  $\delta\omicron$   $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\tau\eta$  or  $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\delta$ .*Participle ;*  $\alpha\zeta$   $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\tau\eta$ , or  $\alpha\zeta$   $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\alpha\delta$ .

## P A S S I V E V O I C E .

IMPERATIVE MOOD;  $\omicron\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha\tau$   $\eta\acute{\epsilon}$ ,  $\acute{\epsilon}\acute{\upsilon}$ ,  $\acute{\epsilon}$ , &c.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	$\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha\tau$ .	} $\omega\acute{\epsilon}$ , $\acute{\epsilon}\acute{\upsilon}$ , $\acute{\epsilon}$ , &c.
<i>Past :</i>	$\mu\dot{\iota}\zeta\eta\epsilon\alpha\delta$ , $\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau\eta\alpha\delta$ .	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	$\zeta\eta\delta\iota$ .	
<i>Future :</i>	$\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha\tau$ .	
<i>Conditional Mood :</i>	$\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha\tau\delta\epsilon$ .	

*Infinitive Mood ;*  $\delta\omicron$   $\beta\epsilon\tau\delta$   $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha$ . *Participle ;*  $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\eta\tau\alpha$ .

1. This verb and the next borrow from each other to form some of the moods and tenses in which they are defective.

(S.)  $\zeta\eta\tau\eta$  or  $\eta\tau\eta$ , *I do*.

## A C T I V E V O I C E .

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

## First Person Singular.

<i>Present :</i>	$\zeta\eta\tau\eta$ or $\eta\tau\eta$ .	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Past :</i>	$\zeta\eta\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau$ or $\eta\delta\epsilon\alpha\tau$ .	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	$\zeta\eta\delta\iota\eta\eta$ or $\eta\delta\iota\eta\eta$ .	

## P A S S I V E V O I C E .

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present :*            ζηῖται, or ηῖται.    } ὡέ, τῦ, é, &c.  
*Consuet. Past :*    ζηῖσί, or ηῖσί.

1. This verb is used in no other moods or tenses ; but so far as it goes it is very common in both forms—with and without the ζ (ζηῖν and ηῖν). The other moods and tenses are expressed by means of δέαιηται.

(9.) Οειπῖν, *I say.*

## A C T I V E V O I C E .

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

- |               |                                |
|---------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. . . .      | 1. αβηαι, αβηαιαοι, αβηαιαοιδ. |
| 2. αβαιη.     | 2. αβηαιδ.                     |
| 3. αβηαιδ ré. | 3. αβηαιαοι.                   |

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

- |               |             |
|---------------|-------------|
| 1. οειπῖν.    | 1. οειπῖνδ. |
| 2. οειπῖν.    | 2. οειπῖνδ. |
| 3. οειπῖν ré. | 3. οειπῖνδ. |

*Consuet. Present ;* οειπειναι ηέ, τῦ ré, &c.

*Past.*

- |                |             |
|----------------|-------------|
| 1. δυβηαι.     | 1. δυβηηαι. |
| 2. δυβηαι.     | 2. δυβηηαι. |
| 3. δυβηαιε ré. | 3. δυβηηαι. |

First person singular.

<i>Consuet. Past :</i> οειπειναι.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i> δέαιηαι.	
<i>Conditional Mood :</i> δέαιηαιη.	

*Infinitive Mood ;* οο ηαιδ. *Participle ;* αζ ηαιδ.

## PASSIVE VOICE.

*Imperative Mood* : Ես ասիմ քեզ, քեզ, քեզ, &c.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> :	Ես ասիմ.	} Ես, քեզ, քեզ, &c.
<i>Past</i> :	Ես ասի.	
<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	Ես ասիմ.	
<i>Future</i> :	Ես ասիմ.	
<i>Conditional Mood</i> :	Ես ասիմ.	

*Infinitive Mood* ; Ես ասիմ, Ես ասիմ.

*Participle* ; ասիմ, ասիմ.

1- The verb Ես ասիմ, I say, from which Ես ասիմ borrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.

2. Observe the characteristics of Ես ասիմ, the past indicative active:—(a) it does not take the participle Ես or Ես ; (b) the initial is not aspirated.

3. The letter Ե is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis; as, Ե Ես ասիմ, for Ես ասիմ, I say ; Ե Ես ասիմ քեզ, for Ես ասիմ քեզ, he said.

(10.) Բացիմ or Ես Ես, I find.

## ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.

Plural.

- |              |                  |
|--------------|------------------|
| 1. . . .     | 1. Բացիմ, Բացիմ. |
| 2. Բացի.     | 2. Բացիմ.        |
| 3. Բացի քեզ. | 3. Բացիմք.       |

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

- |                             |                     |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Բացիմ or Ես Ես.          | 1. Բացիմ, or Ես Ես. |
| 2. Բացիմ or Ես Ես.          | 2. Բացիմ or Ես Ես.  |
| 3. Բացիմ քեզ, or Ես Ես քեզ. | 3. Բացիմ or Ես Ես.  |

*Past.*

- |               |           |
|---------------|-----------|
| 1. Բացիմ.     | 1. Բացիմ. |
| 2. Բացիմ.     | 2. Բացիմ. |
| 3. Բացիմ քեզ. | 3. Բացիմ. |

First person singular.

<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	Բացիմ or Ես Ես.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future</i> :	Ես Ես, Ես Ես.	
<i>Future neg. &amp; interrog.</i> :	Ես Ես or Ես Ես, Ես Ես, or Ես Ես.	
<i>Conditional Mood</i> :	Ես Ես, Ես Ես, or Ես Ես.	

*Infinitive* ; Ես Ես. *Participle* ; Ես Ես.

## P A S S I V E V O I C E .

*Imperative mood*; բաճարի մէ, շն, է, &c.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> :	բաճար.	} Ձե, շն, է, &c.
<i>Past</i> :	բարած or բարի.	
<i>Consuet. Past.</i> :	շեւիւն.	
<i>Conditional Mood</i> :	{ շեւիւնի, Ե-բարիւնի.	

(*Defective in Infinitive and Participle.*)

1. The second form of this verb (շեւիւն) has its initial aspirated in the present and future active.

2. The past tense (բարած, &c.), may or may not take the particle ծօ or ուօ; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.) Եմի, *I eat.*

## A C T I V E V O I C E .

First Person Singular.

*Future Indicative*: յօրբած. } With the usual terminations for  
*Conditional Mood*: յօրբալի. } the other persons and numbers.

1. The past indicative is either the regular form ծիւն, &c., or the irregular ծար (with the usual terminations:—ծարի, ծարիւն, &c.)

2. The infinitive is ծիւն,

3. In other respects this verb is regular.

(12.) Ելիմ, *I reach.*

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . . .	1. Ելիմի.
2. Ելի.	2. Ելիւն.
3. Ելեա՛ծ ին.	3. Ելի՛մի.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

1. Ելիմ.	1. Ելիմի.
2. Ելիմ.	2. Ելիւն.
3. Ելիւն.	3. Ելիւն.

*Past.*

1. Ելալ.	1. Ելալար.
2. Ելալի.	2. Ելալար.
3. Ելալիւն, Ելալիւն ին.	3. Ելալար.

## First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	𐌱𐌿𐌿𐌹𐌸𐌴.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	𐌱𐌿𐌿𐌹𐌺𐌰𐌸.	
<i>Conditional Mood :</i>	𐌱𐌿𐌿𐌹𐌺𐌸𐌴.	

*Infinitive ;* 𐌸𐌴 𐌱𐌿𐌰𐌿𐌸𐌴𐌸, or 𐌸𐌴 𐌱𐌴𐌿𐌸𐌴𐌸.

1. The past, future, and conditional, are sometimes expressed by a different verb, as follows:—but this form (which is the same form as the infinitive), is not often met with in the modern language.

## First Person Singular.

<i>Past :</i>	𐌱𐌿𐌰𐌿𐌸	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	𐌱𐌿𐌰𐌿𐌺𐌰𐌸.	
<i>Conditional Mood :</i>	𐌱𐌿𐌰𐌿𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸.	

(13.) 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸, *I go.*

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . . .	1. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸𐌸.
2. 𐌲𐌺𐌸.	2. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸.
3. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌰𐌰𐌸 𐌸𐌺.	3. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸𐌸.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

1. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸𐌴.	1. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸𐌴𐌸.
2. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸𐌸.	2. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌿𐌸𐌴𐌸, or 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸𐌴𐌸.
3. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴 𐌸𐌺.	3. 𐌲𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸.

*Past Tense.*

1. 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌴.	1. 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌴𐌸.
2. 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌸.	2. 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌴𐌸.
3. 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌸𐌴 𐌸𐌺.	3. 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌴𐌸.

There is another form of the past tense of this verb used after the particles 𐍆𐌴, 𐌺𐌸, &c., which O'Donovan classes as a subjunctive mood. The negative 𐌺𐌸, which aspirates, is here prefixed: after 𐍆𐌴, the initial would be eclipsed.

1. 𐌺𐌸 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌴.	1. 𐌺𐌸 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌴𐌸.
2. 𐌺𐌸 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌸.	2. 𐌺𐌸 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌴𐌸.
3. 𐌺𐌸 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌸𐌴𐌸 𐌸𐌺.	3. 𐌺𐌸 𐌸𐌴𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌴𐌸.

## First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	𐌸𐌴𐌸𐌴𐌸𐌴.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	𐌱𐌰𐌿𐌺𐌰𐌸, or 𐌱𐌰𐌰𐌸.	
<i>Conditional Mood :</i>	𐌱𐌰𐌿𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸, or 𐌱𐌰𐌰𐌸𐌴𐌸.	

*Infinitive ;* 𐌸𐌴 𐌸𐌴𐌸. *Participle ;* 𐌰𐌺𐌸𐌴𐌸.

(14.) *Ելիմ, I come.*

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. Ելիմի՛ր, or Ելեա՛մ.
2. Եա՛ր, or Ել՛.	2. Ելի՛ծ.
3. Ելեա՛ծ ըն.	3. Ելի՛ծի՛ր.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*

1. Ելիմ.	1. Ելիմի՛ծ.
2. Ելի՛ր.	2. Ելի՛ծ, Ելե՛ծի՛ծ.
3. Ել ըն.	3. Ելի՛ծ.

*Past Tense.*

1. Եանջա՛ր.	1. Եանջամա՛ր.
2. Եանջա՛ր.	2. Եանջա՛ծար.
3. Եանի՛ց ըն.	3. Եանջա՛ծար.

## First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	Ելի՛րդ.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	Ելո՛ւք բա՛ծ.	
<i>Conditional Mood:</i>	Ելո՛ւք բա՛լիդ.	

*Infinitive ;* ծո Եեա՛ծ. *Participle ;* աջ Եեա՛ծ.

## OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. The following defective verbs are often met with in the modern language :

Այր, or ար, “says.” It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb *quoth* ; as ար ըն, says he : Երեւո՞ծ ծո Եւրբարի՛ս ծամ ? ար Օյարիմա՛ծ : “ ‘What wilt thou do for me ?’ says Diarmaid ;” “Եւան Եժուր Եւրի մար ա Ե-բար ըն, ար ըն, “ ‘give knowledge to us where he is,’ said they (or say they).” In the older writings this verb is often written ol.

Աւ Եա՛ծ, he (or she) died.

Օար, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected). Օար կոմ, methinks or methought ; ծար Եեա՛ծ, it seems or seemed to thee ; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pronouns singular and plural : Օո ըն ըն, ծար կոմ, մար ա ըն Եա՛լ, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me), like the wind.

Օլի՛շԵար, it is lawful, it is allowed.

Օւր, to know ; Եանի՛ց ըն Եւր ա ըն ըն ըն, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Եւթար, I know ; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense : ըն Եւթար մե, I do not know ; ըն Եւթար ըն, he does not know ; ա ըն Եւթարա՛ծ ? do ye know ?



Ní fúláir, it is necessary (or “must,” used impersonally); ní fúláir dom a beic air ríabál, “it is necessary for me to be (or I must be) walking (away).”

## CHAPTER VI.

## ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, INTERJECTIONS.

## I. ADVERBS.

1. There are not many simple adverbs in the Irish language. Far the greatest number of the Irish adverbs are compounded of two or more words.

2. An adverb may be formed from an adjective by prefixing the particle *go*, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix *ly*; as *boirb*, fierce; *go boirb*, fiercely. Almost all Irish adjectives admit of being changed in this manner to adverbs.

3. Besides the adverbs formed in this way, there are many compound adverbs, which are generally made up of a noun and a preposition; the preposition often causing an eclipse.

4. The following is an alphabetical list of the compound adverbs in most general use, with a few of the simple adverbs. Some of the compound adverbs become, in some situations, prepositions:—

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| A b-fad far off, in space or time.   | Air g-cúl, backwards, back: cùr air g-cúl—the opposite to cùr air bun—to put back, to abolish. |
| A búr, on this side. (See éall.)   | Air leic, apart, separately.   |
| A d-torac, at first, in the beginning.   | Air mhod, in a manner; so that.  |
| A d-tuaidh, northwards.  | Air rón, for the sake of.  |
| A g-céadói, immediately.   | Air uairib, at times; some times.  |
| A g-céin, far off.   | A mac, out of, outside.  |
| A g-comhnuide, always.   | A mháin, alone, only.  |
| A g-rin, there.  | A mháic, to-morrow.  |
| A g-ro, here.  | A muil, outside.   |
| A g-rúid, yonder.  | A muil, like, as.  |
| Air air, back, backward. (See air éigin)   | A n airde, on high.  |
| Air ball, on the spot, instantly.  | A n é, yesterday.  |
| Air bít, at all.   | A nfor, from below, upwards.   |
| Air bun, on foundation: cùr air bun, to found, to institute.   | A n éirfeac, together.   |
| Air ceana, in like manner; in general.   | A n rin, there.  |
| Air coidce, for ever.  | A n ro, here.  |
| Air éigin, with difficulty; perforce:—air air no air éigin, by consent or by force: <i>nolens volens; willy nilly.</i> | A n rúid, yonder.  |
|  | A ndear, southward.  |
|  | A n aice, near.  |
|  | A nall, on this side; hither.  |
|  | A n gair, near.  |
|  | A n gair, to-day.  |

Ἀνοίτ, now.	Ἐὰς ἑπὶ, thrice.
Ἀνοή, to that side; thither.	Ἵς βῆατ, for ever (lit. to [the] judgment).
Ἀν ταν, when.	Ἵς δεῖνῃ, verily; truly; indeed.
Ἀνωατ, from above, downwards.	Ἵς δ-τῖ, unto.
Ἀνέπ, last night.	Ἵς πόλ, yet; awhile.
Ἀμιαῖ, ever.	Ἵς ἡ-πομλῇ, altogether.
Ἀμῖτ, again.	Ἵς λέπ, entirely.
Ἀρτεαδ, in, into.	Ἵς λεόν, enough.
Ἀρτῖδ, in, inside.	Ἰομορμιο, however, moreover, indeed.
beaζ ηαδ, little but; almost.	Ἰαπλε πε, together with.
Ca ἡ-ατ, cad ατ, canατ, from what? whence?	Ἰαπ αν ζ-εαδηα, likewise; in like manner.
Ca ἡῖδ, how many? how much?	Ἰαπ αον λε, together with.
Caτ, ca ἡ-ατ, cia ατ, what place?	Ἰο, until.
De βῖδ, because.	Ἰ ρον ale, from that time out.
Oo ρῖον, always.	Ἰρ cionῃ, above.
Eaδον, that is, <i>i. e.</i> ; <i>id est</i> .	Ἰῖον, downwards.
Ἐα, gives an adverbial meaning to some words:	Ἰον, eastwards.
Ἐα εαδόν, immediately.	Ἰατ, upwards.
Ἐα δεοῖδ, at last.	Ἰαλλ, on the other side; beyond. (See αβυτ).
Ἐα δό, twice.	Ἰαμῖ, awhile.
Ἐα ῖεαδ, by turns; respectively.	Ἰαπλε εῖλε, besides; moreover.

## II. PREPOSITIONS.

### 1. The following is a list of the simple prepositions:—

α or ι, as a μ-βαῖλε, in a town.	Ἵς, towards, along with. It takes τ before the article αν; as ζυτ αν δ-τῖδ, to the house.
α, out of, or from (unusual); as a Μονῃαῖ, out of Munster.	Ἰ, the same as α.
αδ or αῖδ, at, with.	Ἰαν, after. It takes τ before the article (αν) and becomes ἰαντ.
Απ, απ, upon.	Ἰδπ, between.
Αν, in. This takes τ before the article. (See page 21.)	Ἰμ, the same as um.
ατ, out of.	λε or πε, with. It takes τ before the article (αν), and then becomes λετ or πτ.
Chum, to or towards, for the purpose of.	Ἰαπ, like, as.
Οαπ, used in swearing, equivalent to <i>by</i> : δαπ μο βῖα-εαπ, "by my word."	Ἰ, from.
Oo, to.	Ἰρ, over, above.
Eaδαπ, the same as ἰδπ.	Ἰε, πῖα, before. It takes τ before the article (αν).
Ἐα or παοι, under.	
Ἐαν, without.	

Seac, beyond, besides.

Tré, through. It takes *r* before the article, and then becomes *trér*.

Tan, over, across. It takes *r* before the article (*an*), and then becomes *tanr*.

Tríd, the same as *tré*.  
Um or im, about.

2. Some of the simple prepositions are amalgamated with the personal and possessive pronouns.

3. Besides the simple prepositions, there are in Irish a number of compound prepositions. Each of these consists of a simple preposition followed by a noun; and in many of them the initial of the noun is eclipsed by the influence of the simple preposition. In some cases the preposition has dropped out and only the noun remains.

4. The following is a list of the most usual compound prepositions, with their meanings:—

A b-fadhaire, in presence of.

A b-fochair, with, along with.

A d-taobh, in regard to, concerning.

A d-timceall: see *timceall*.

A g-ceann, at the head of, at the end of, with regard to.

A g-coinne, against, for (in the phrase to go *for*): *ruid a g-coinne a céile*, "they run against each other;" *do chuaid re a g-coinne a achar*, he went for his father.

A g-coir, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to *coir*: *coir na bhuíde*, "beside the (river) Bride."

A h-acht, after: "a h-acht na laide rin," "after that lay."

A mear, amongst: *ruir amear na g-coilltead*, "down amongst the woods."

A lachar, in presence of.

A n-aí, forward, over against, opposite: *dul an aia*, to go forward, to progress: *an aia na gaoithe*, opposite (exposed to) the wind.

A n-béal, in front of, opposite: *do luideir do gac, a n-iomdair an beal, a n-achar*, "they used to lie, customarily, in beds opposite their father" (Children of Lir).

A n-bun, on foundation.

A n-éan, for (in the phrase to go *for*); as *a dubairt Naisi le h-Ardan dul an éan Fergus*, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus."

A n-éad, through, throughout, during: *an éad bliadha*, "during a year."

A n-fud, throughout, amongst: *an fud na d-tonn*, amongst the waves.

A n-gúl, behind.

A n-ionn, for the sake of.

A n-éan, after: *a n-éan a céile*, after one another, one after another.

Coir, contracted from *a g-coir*.

Óala, as to: *dála blánaide*, "as to Blanaid."

Ó'éir, after: *d'éir na Dóilinne*, "after the Deluge."

Ó'ionnraíḡḡ or d'ionnraíḡḡe, towards: *ḡluairear nóimhe d'ionnraíḡḡe a laḡḡe*, "he goes forward towards his ship."

Oócum, towards.

Co n'éir, according to.

Go nuiḡe, unto, until.

Go d-ḡí, to, unto, as far as: *ḡubáil go d-ḡí an doruḡ*, walk to the door.

Ionḡúra, as to: *ionḡúra Fhinn* "as to Finn."

Fa cuaḡuḡ, towards.

Laḡh le or laḡh ne, near, by, beside: *ruḡḡ laḡh liom*, sit near me; *laḡh ne beannaib boirḡe*, "beside Beanna Boirche."

Ór cionn, over, above: *ḡraḡuḡḡ Óra ór cionn ḡac uile ḡḡḡ*, "love God above all things": *no éirḡḡ or cionn an ḡaoḡḡ*, "he rose over the spear."

ḡ-ḡionn, the same as a ḡ-ceann: *ḡ-ḡionn na bliadḡa*, "at the end of the year."

ḡan ceann, besides, for the sake of, beyond, in preference to.

ḡan aḡ, backwards; same as aḡ aḡ.

ḡan éir, after; the same as d'éir: *ḡan éir na Samḡa*, "after the Samḡain (1st of November)"

ḡmḡeall, about, around: *ḡeacḡ, ḡmḡeall Ohiaḡmada*, "to go around Dermat"

Ór comḡaḡ, in presence of, before the face of: *ór comḡaḡ Fhinn*, "in presence of Finn."

### III. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. There are few simple conjunctions in the Irish language.

2. There are, however, many compound conjunctions, much like the English conjunctive phrases, "for the reason that," "to the end that," &c.

3. Generally speaking, the meanings of the compound conjunctions may be easily gathered from the signification of the words that compose them; but there are a few whose meanings are not so plain.

4. The following is a list of the simple conjunctions, with their meanings, together with those of the compound conjunctions whose meanings are not quite obvious:—

Ḳcḡ, but, except.

Ḳcḡ ceana, but however.

Ḳḡuḡ, and; often contracted to a'ḡ, aḡ, and 'ḡ.

Ḳḡu an adbaḡ ḡḡ, wherefore.

Ḳḡ, an interrogative particle: *an b-ḡuḡ ḡí ḡlan?* Is she well?

Ḳḡ, the same as the last, only used with the past tense.

bḡoḡ, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb ḡaḡḡ.

Cḡḡ: see ḡíḡ.

Cóḡ, as.

Óa, if; sometimes written óa mo.	Wuna, if not, unless; often written muu, and even (corruptly) mau.
Óo bñiż, because.	Waiſead, if so, well then.
Óo cum 3o, in order that.	Wap rñ, mau ro, in that manner, in this manner: thus.
Fór, yet, moreover.	Ná, than: see 1oná,
3ið, or 3iðeað, although.	Ná, nor, not.
3o, that.	Nó, or; often pronounced nú in Munster.
3up, that: formed of the preceding and no. (See page 58.)	O, since, seeing that, because.
Joná ñá: see ñá.	O cápla, since, whereas.
Jonnur 3o, in order that, so that.	Oñ, because.
Wa, if.	Sul, before.
Wa ta 3o, although that.	Uñme rñ, therefore, wherefore.
Wap, as; see muna.	

## IV. INTERJECTIONS.

1. The following is a list of the most common interjections. Besides these there are many interjectional expressions somewhat like the English, "O shame!" "Alack! and well-a-day!" but it is not necessary to enumerate them:—

A, the sign of the vocative case, usually translated "O."	Wapñ, woe! Oh sad!
A r tñuaż, alas! what a pity!	Wonañne, Oh shame!
Eñt, hush! list!	Wonañ, alas! woe is me!
Fapaon, fapaonñ, alas!	Wó cñuaż: see a r tñuaż.
Fapaonñ 3eup, alas! O sharp sorrow!	Oc, uc, alas!
Féac, see! behold!	Ocón, or ucón, alas! written ocan or ucan in old writings.
	Olażón, alas!

## CHAPTER VII.

## PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.

1. There are in Irish, as in other languages, prefixes and affixes, which modify the meanings of words.

## I. PREFIXES.

1. The following is a list of the principal prefixes, with their meanings: it will be observed that many of them have a double form, which arises from conformity to the rule caol le caol, &c.

2. Most of these are inseparable particles; but a few are also employed independently as separate words:—

Añr or eñr, back or again, like English re: as 1oc, payment; añr1oc, repayment, restitution; eññ3e, rising; eñre13e resurrection.

Ἀἷ, or αἷ, a negative particle, like English *un*; as ἡέῖδ, open, clear; αἷηἡέῖδ, difficult, rough.

Ἀ, an intensitive particle: as ἡαἷἡαἷ, joyful; αἷ-ἡαἷἡαἷ, overjoyed.

Ἀ or α, a negative particle, like English *un*: as ἡαἷ, time; αἷἡαἷ, untimely; ἡἡα, desire; αἷἡἡα, evil desire.

Ἀ, a reiterative, like English *re*: as ἡαἷ, a saying; αἷἡαἷ, a repetition.

Ἀ has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle*: as ἡαἷ, a form; αἷἡαἷ, to deform, to destroy; ἡἡἡαἷ, to crown or elect a king; αἷἡἡἡαἷ, to dethrone.

ἡ, feminine (from ἡαἷ, a woman); as ἡαἷ, a messenger; ἡαἷ-ἡαἷ, or ἡαἷ-ἡαἷ, a female messenger.

ἡ, or ἡ, lasting, constant: as ἡ, living; ἡἡἡ, everlasting.

ἡ, equal; English *co* or *con*: as αἷἡαἷ, time; ἡαἷἡαἷ, cotemporary.

ἡ, ἡ, good: as ἡ, taste; ἡἡἡ, good or pleasant taste.

ἡ, ἡ, a negative, like English *dis*: as ἡἡἡ, wise; ἡἡἡ, foolish; ἡαἷ, a head; ἡἡἡαἷ, to behead.

ἡ, ἡ, bad or evil: as ἡαἷ, work; ἡἡἡ-ἡαἷ an evil work.

ἡ and ἡ are opposites, as are also often the letters ἡ and ἡ. ἡ denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or positive quality: as ἡαἷἡαἷ or ἡἡαἷἡαἷ, visible; ἡἡαἷἡαἷ, invisible; ἡἡἡ, tribulation; ἡἡἡ, comfort; ἡἡἡ, ill luck; ἡἡἡ, good luck; ἡἡἡἡ, hard to be done; ἡἡἡἡ, easy to be done; ἡἡἡ, sad; ἡἡἡ, merry.

ἡ, a negative, often causing eclipsis: as ἡαἷἡἡ, strong; ἡἡαἷἡἡ, weak; ἡἡἡ, just; ἡἡἡἡἡ, injustice; ἡἡἡ, heavy; ἡἡἡἡἡ, light.

ἡ, a negative: as ἡἡἡ, honor; ἡἡἡἡἡ, dishonor; ἡἡἡ, healthful; ἡἡἡ, sick; ἡἡἡἡἡ, friendship; ἡἡἡἡἡἡ, enmity.

ἡ, under: as ἡἡἡ, a man; ἡἡἡἡἡ, an *under-man*, a common man, a servant.

ἡἡἡ, against, back *contra*: as ἡἡἡ, a stroke; ἡἡἡἡἡ, a back-stroke; ἡἡἡ, a hook; ἡἡἡἡἡ, a *back-hook*, a barb.

ἡ, ἡ, many: as ἡἡἡ, much; ἡἡἡἡἡ, sundry, various; ἡἡἡ, a color; ἡἡἡἡἡ, many colored; ἡἡἡἡἡ, an edge; ἡἡἡἡἡἡ, many-edged weapons.

ἡ, ἡ, fit: as ἡἡἡἡἡ, done; ἡἡἡἡἡἡ, fit to be done; ἡἡἡἡἡ, said; ἡἡἡἡἡἡ, fit to be said.

Ḳan, full, used as an intensitive: as aḡḡḡḡḡl, vast; Ḳanaḡḡḡḡḡl, awfully vast.

Ḳeač, half: as uaḡḡ, an hour; Ḳeačuaḡḡ, half an hour. This word is also used to denote one of a pair: thus ḡḡl, an eye; Ḳeač-ḡḡl, (literally *half an eye*), one of two eyes. See "Idiom, No. 13."

Ḳḡ, mḡo, a negative: as mḡaḡ, respect; mḡḡmḡaḡ, disrespect; cḡḡḡḡḡḡ, advice; mḡočḡḡḡḡḡḡ, evil advice.

Ḳeaḡ, ḡeḡḡ, a negative: as cḡḡḡḡḡḡčḡ, comprehensible; ḡeaḡčḡḡḡḡḡḡčḡ, incomprehensible: ḡḡḡ, a thing; ḡeḡḡḡḡḡ, nothing.

Ḳeumḡ, before, like English *pre*: as ḡaḡḡčḡ, said; ḡeumḡ-ḡaḡḡčḡ, aforesaid.

Ḳo, an intensitive particle: as ḡḡḡ, great; ḡḡ-ḡḡḡ, very great.

Ḳaḡ, an intensitive particle: as ḡaḡčḡ, good; ḡaḡ-ḡaḡčḡ, very good.

Ḳo, ḡoḡ, the opposite to ḡo, denotes apt, easy, good: as ḡeaḡḡḡ-čḡ, proved; ḡoḡḡeaḡḡḡčḡ, easily proved.

Ḳḡ or uḡḡ, an intensitive particle: as ḡḡeaḡ, low; ḡḡḡḡḡeaḡ, very low humble, mean, vile.

## II. AFFIXES OR TERMINATIONS.\*

1. The following is a list of the principal affixes or terminations, with their meanings; but it does not include inflectional terminations, which are all given in connection with declensions and conjugations:—

Ḳč, when it is the termination of an adjective, means full of, abounding in, like the English *y* and *ous*, with the former of which it seems cognate; as ḡḡaḡḡčḡaḡ, the black-thorn; ḡḡaḡḡčḡeaḡač, abounding in black-thorn; ḡḡačḡaḡ, a word; ḡḡačḡḡač, wordy, talkative.

Ḳč, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent: as cḡḡḡačḡ, power; cḡḡḡačḡač, a mighty person; Conḡačḡač, a native of Connaught.

Ḳč, an abstract termination, like the English *ness* and *ty* (in *probability*): as caḡčḡaḡač, charitable; caḡčḡaḡačč, charity: ḡḡḡ and ḡḡḡḡa, great; ḡḡḡḡačč, greatness.

Ḳḡḡ, uḡḡḡ, or ḡḡḡ, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as cor, a foot; cḡḡḡḡḡḡ, a walker; cḡḡḡḡḡ, drive; cḡḡḡḡḡḡḡḡ, a driver.

Ḳḡḡḡ, or ḡḡḡḡ, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as loḡḡ, a track; loḡḡḡḡḡḡ, a tracker; cealḡ, guile; cealḡḡḡḡḡ, a deceiver.

Ḳḡḡḡḡ, has the same meaning as the English *like* and *ly*: as ḡḡaḡčḡ, a prince; ḡḡaḡčḡeaḡḡḡḡ, princely.

\* For a full account of these terminations see the author's "Origin and History of Irish Names of Places." Second series, Chaps. I. and II.

Ἀη, a diminutive termination, but it has now nearly lost its diminutive sense; as *loc*, a lake; *locān*, a small lake.

Ἀρ or *ear*, and sometimes the letter *ρ* alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like *αῖτ*, as *αοιβιηη*, delightful; *αοιβ-ηear*, delightfulness or delight; *ceanh*, a head; *ceanh-ar*, headship, authority.

ἅη and *bne*, have a collective or cumulative sense; as *duille*, a leaf; *duilleabair*, foliage; *ḍair*, an oak; *ḍairbne*, a place of oaks.

Ḃhair has a collective sense like the last; as *beanh*, a peak or gable; *beanh-car*, abounding in peaks or gables.

Οε, an ancient adjectival termination, has much the same meaning as the English *ful* and *ly* (in manly). In the modern language it is varied to the forms *da*, *da*, and *ta*; as *móir*, great; *móir-da*, majestic; *feair*, a man; *feair-da*, manly; *míle*, a champion; *míle-da*, champion-like, knightly.

Ε denotes abstract quality, like *αῖτ*; as *feih*, fair or white; *feihne*, fairness; *boz*, soft; *buize*, softness.

Ἴη a diminutive termination. This may be said to be the only diminutive that still retains its full force in the living language; and it is much used in Ireland even where Irish is not spoken. *bócar*, a road; *bócaruín*, (*bohkeen*), a little road; *crusk*, a pitcher; *cruiskeen*, a little pitcher.

Λαc, ηαc, ραc, ταc, τριαc, have all the same meaning as *αῖ*, namely, full of, abounding in: as *buir*, break; *buirleac*, a breach, a complete defeat; *muc*, a pig; *muclac*, a piggery; *luacair*, rushes; *luacairηac*, a rushy place; *boz*, a bog or soft place; *bozriac*, a place full of bogs; *coill*, a wood; *coillteac*, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words *poult-ry*, *varie-ty*, &c.

Ḃhair means abounding in, like the English *ful* and *ly*; as *buiz*, power; *buiozhair*, powerful.

Óz, a diminutive termination; as *cíair*, black; *cíair-óz*, a black little animal (a clock, or chafer); *ḡabal*, a fork; *ḡabal-óz*, a little fork.

Óir, or *dóir*, or *cóir*, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English *er* in *reaper*; as *buaí*, strike; *buaíteóir*, a thresher; *coirneal*, a candle; *coirneal-óir*, a candlestick; *rpéal*, a scythe; *rpéaladóir*, a mower.

Be has a collective signification, like *hair*, as *beul*, the mouth; *béirne*, language, speech.

Seac is used as a sort of feminine termination; as *ḡall*, an Englishman; *ḡallireac*, an Englishwoman; *óirreac*, a female fool (from an old root *óir*, whence the old word *óirneit*, a fool, the equivalent of the modern *amhán*).

Ταc and τριαc: see *lac*.



## PART III.

## SYNTAX.

## CHAPTER I.

## NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together, signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as *ḡuḡ ḡcḡaḡu*, the voice of a hound; *ḡ b-ḡlaḡḡor 'Eḡneanḡ*, "in the sovereignty of Erin;" *bāḡu ḡa ḡ-ḡḡre*, the top of the island.

2. When the genitive noun is singular masculine, its initial is aspirated if the article is used; as *ḡac aḡ ḡḡu*, the son of the man. (See pages 21 and 22 for this rule and its exceptions.)

3. When the article is not used with the governed noun in the singular number, the initial of the latter is generally not aspirated (except in the case mentioned in next Rule); as *Conall ḡ ḡ-cḡoḡaḡ bāḡr*, "Conall in the forms of death;" *a ḡ-ḡólar bḡóḡde a'r ḡéḡne*, "in the sorrow of bondage and of pain."

4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as *ḡlḡoḡḡ ḡḡaoḡḡil*, "the race of Gaodhal; *cloḡḡeasḡ ḡḡḡaḡḡḡaḡḡ*, "the sword of Manannan."

Exception:—In this case, *ḡ* and *ḡ* often resist aspiration; as *Eḡne*, *ḡḡḡean* *Oealbḡaoḡḡ*, "Eire, the daughter of Dealbhaoth."

5. If the governed noun be in the genitive plural, its initial is eclipsed with the article; and the initial is generally aspirated, if the article is not used; as *Oaḡḡḡen ḡac ḡ-ḡḡḡneac*, "the fortress of [the] sons of Usna;" *bḡḡean cḡḡḡad*, "a company of knights;" *ḡlar bāḡ*, "two women" (or rather "a pair of women.")

Even in the absence of the article, however, an eclipsis sometimes occurs; as, *ḡaoḡ ḡaoḡḡar do bḡ aḡ ḡeacḡ ḡḡaḡḡaḡḡ cḡora aḡur cāḡa b-ḡear ḡ-'Eḡḡḡonḡ*, "nine times nine persons who were coming to demand the taxes and tributes of the men of Erin."

Sometimes also, in the absence of the article, the noun in the genitive plural is neither aspirated nor eclipsed.

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\* Several of the rules of Syntax have been unavoidably anticipated in Orthography and Etymology, as they are in every Irish Grammar. These rules will be referred to in their proper places in this Syntax, or repeated when thought necessary.



page 37, follow this rule; as, *do b̄adap̄ an d̄iap̄ r̄ih zo h̄-ih̄neap̄-nac̄*, "that pair were at strife."

10. Nouns denoting a part commonly take *de* with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as, *z̄adap̄ d̄'ap̄ ηz̄adap̄aib̄*, "a hound of our hounds;" *aoη c̄aoz̄ b̄ib̄*, "one berry of them;" *z̄ac̄ dūih̄e de'η p̄obul*, "each person of the people."

11. The personal nouns, from *d̄iap̄* to *deic̄h̄eab̄ap̄* inclusive, and also *teōra*, three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as, *d̄iap̄ b̄an*, "two (of) women;" *a c̄ih̄iur̄ mac̄ az̄ur̄ a d̄-c̄ih̄iur̄ b̄an*, "his three sons and their three wives;" *teōra b̄an*, "three women;" *ηaoηb̄ap̄ taoīreac̄*, "nine chieftains."

But they sometimes take *de* with the dative, as in the last rule; as *ηaoī ηaoηb̄ap̄ do η̄aoηaib̄ ηa b̄-F̄ōih̄oiāc̄*, "nine times nine of the stewards of the Fomorians;" *ηo d̄ir̄ mac̄, ηo d̄ir̄ d̄'feap̄aib̄*, "my two sons, my two men."

## CHAPTER II.

### THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

1. The article agrees with its noun in number, gender, and case; as, *an̄ f̄eap̄*, the man; *ηa c̄ih̄ice*, of the hen; *ηa ba*, the cows.

2. For the influence of the article on the noun, see page 22.

3. When one noun governs another in the genitive case, the article can be used only with the latter. Thus, in English we can say "the age of the world" (using the definite article with each noun); but in Irish, the corresponding expression is, *aoīr an̄ dom̄āih̄*, not, "*an̄*" *aoīr an̄ dom̄āih̄*.

Exception:—When a demonstrative pronoun follows the governing noun, or when the two nouns come together as a compound word, the governing noun may take the article; as, *an̄ t̄-ōide m̄īih̄te*, the teacher; *m̄a do b̄eip̄ t̄u an̄ ōih̄ead̄ r̄ih̄ d̄ūih̄ 'rāh̄ l̄o r̄o ηa η-deōr̄*, "if thou givest so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used before both *l̄o* and *deōr̄*. *Tan̄-z̄adap̄ ap̄ir̄ i η-'Ēih̄iuh̄ an̄ r̄ih̄ōc̄ r̄o Sh̄imeon̄ bh̄īic̄*, "these descendants of Simon Brec came again into Erin:" here the article is used before *r̄ih̄ōc̄*, the governing noun.

4. When a possessive pronoun is used with the genitive noun, the article cannot be used with either; thus, "the house of my father" is *teāc̄ m̄'ac̄ap̄*, not "*an̄*" *teāc̄ m̄'ac̄ap̄*.

The peculiarity noticed in the last two rules exists also in English when the possessive case is used, *i.e.*, the article can be used only with the possessive noun; as, the world's age; my father's house.

5. When a demonstrative pronoun is used with a noun, the article is also used; as, *an fear rí*, that man; literally, "the man that;" *na mhaí úd*, yonder women; literally, "the women yonder."

6. The article is used before the names of some countries and cities, where the definite article would not be used in English; as *Moenan*, *Abb Caṡnac Fursa rí* *Frainc*, *déu*, "Moenan, Abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;" *Cruaca na h-Eireann*, "the stacks of (the) Erin;" *tuaircear na h-Ásia*, "the north of (the) Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase corresponding to the English "the mighty Hector;" as, *an t-Óscar*, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *is* (in any of its forms), the article is used with the noun (but in the corresponding expression in English the definite article would not be used); as, *is fear é*, he is a good man: literally "he is the good man."

8. The Irish article is used before abstract nouns much more commonly than the English definite article; as, *an t-ocur*, "the hunger;"  *trí nṡ do cṡ*:—*an peacad*, *an bá*, *a' an pá*, "three things I see—the sin, the death, and the pain."

## CHAPTER III.

### THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fullness or a part of anything may take either the dative after *de* or the genitive; as (dative after *de*):—*idur dá bannaíe lan do leann*, "between two barrels full of ale;" *tá mé lan do náie*, "I am full of shame;" *móran d'árlib*, "many of nobles;" (genitive):—*lan a duinn*, "the full of his fist;" *an naib móran auzid aise*, "had he much of money?" *craob dhaoiṡín auzur alán áinnead uinne*, "a branch of blackthorn and its full of sloes on it."

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes *na* (or *na*, or *iona*,) before the noun which follows it; as, *is binnne a ceól na lon rína ríol*, "sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush."

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has *de* ("of it") after it, then *na* is not used; as, *naṡ bu fearuṡde dób é*, "that they would be none the better of it."

#### AGREEMENT AND COLLOCATION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

FIRST CASE—When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun:

When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun as a

qualifying or limiting term (as in the English "a high tower,") in this case the following **ten** rules apply:—

1. The natural position of the adjective is after its noun; as, *cablač mór*, "a great fleet."

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next two rules.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as, *caol- fear*, "slender man; *mór fálruige*, "great sea;" *dob-čárraig*, "black rock."

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: *deach*, good; *duch*, evil; *fíor*, true; *nuad*, new; *rean*, old; *tuac*, left-handed.

Numeral adjectives form another exception, for which see next chapter.

4. When a name consists of two words, the adjective comes between them; as, *Slíab adbal-mór luačra*, "the tremendous-large Slieve Lougher;" *Eamhúir mhí aluinn Wacá*, "the smooth beautiful Emain Macha."

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as, *fear mač*, a good man; *rěul na mha mórre*, "the story of the large woman" (gen. sing. fem.); *ar an aibéir ionđaircaig*, "on the wonderful abyss" (dat. sing. fem.).

6. When the adjective follows its noun, the initial of the adjective is aspirated under the circumstances already stated in Par. 6, page 16; or eclipsed in the circumstance stated in Par. 3, page 34.

7. When two or more nouns are joined together, and are followed by an adjective which qualifies or limits them, all and each, the adjective agrees with the last: in other words, it is the last noun only that influences the adjective, both in grammatical inflection, and in initial change; as, *bean ađur fear mač*, a good woman and man; *fear ađur bean mač*, a good man and woman.

8. When the adjective precedes the noun, as in Rule 2 and 3, above, it does not agree with the noun, *i.e.*, it is not influenced by the noun, either as to inflection, or as to initial change; in other words, the simple form of the adjective is used, whatever be the number, gender, or case of the noun; as, *mór uairle*, "great nobles;" *do mór uairle*, "to [the] great nobles;" *bán čnoic 'Eirnean*, "the fair hills of Erin;" *luač bárra*, "swift barks;" *fíor rěul*, "a true story;" *fíor rěulta*, "true stories."

9. When the adjective precedes the noun, the adjective and the noun are sometimes regarded as one compound word; and the initial of the noun is aspirated (in accordance with Par. 4, page 16); also the vowel of the adjective is often modified by the

rule caol le caol, &c.; as, Deirdre an Ouib-íleibe “Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;” óig-bean, “a young woman.”

10. When the adjective precedes the noun, the initial of the adjective is subject to the same changes as if the adjective and the noun formed one word, *i.e.*, one noun; as gáirne na h-óig-íear, “the laughter of the young men;” an t-áird-ollamh rí, “that chief professor;” an t-íean-bean bocht, “the poor old woman.”

SECOND CASE.—When the adjective is connected with the noun by a verb:

When the adjective, instead of being joined immediately with the noun, is predicated of, or ascribed to, the noun by a verb of any kind (as in the English, “the man is tall,” “he considered the man tall,” “he made the knife sharp,” “the roads were made straight”), in this case the following **three** rules apply:—

1. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *tá*, it follows the noun, the order being:—verb, noun, adjective; as *tá an lá breá.* “the day is fine.”

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *ír*, it precedes the noun, the order being:—verb, adjective, noun; as *ír breá an lá é*, “it is a fine day.”

3. When an adjective is ascribed to a noun by a verb of any kind, the adjective does not agree with the noun, *i.e.*, the adjective is not influenced by it, either initially or inflectionally; in other words, the simple form of the adjective, without inflection, is used, whatever be the number or gender of the noun; and the initial of the adjective is neither aspirated nor eclipsed (unless under the influence of some other word); as, *ír aibínn do cúair acar do chalapuir acar do mhaí mhincoíaca caemhalne*, “delightful are thy harbors and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains;” *asur crioíche méicead ar na h-daíuádh deairí*, “and rams’ skins dyed red.”—(Exodus, xxv. 5).

The first example (from the story of the Children of Usna), exhibits both an agreement according to Rule 5, page 83, and a disagreement according to the present rule. For the three nouns are plural, and the two last adjectives which qualify them directly are in the plural form, while the first adjective, *aibínn* (modern *aoibínn*), which is asserted of them by *ír*, is in its simple form (the plural would be *aibínne*, or *aibíne*). In the second example *crioíche* is plural, while *deairí* is singular (plural *deairí*).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement:—*Oo múnne ré na briaí glara*; *do múnne ré na briaí glar*: in the first the adjective agrees with the noun, (both being plural), showing that it qualifies it directly (Rule 5, page 83), and that the meaning is, “he made the green mantles;” in the second there is no agreement, (the adject-

tive being singular and the noun plural), showing that the adjective is connected with the noun by the verb (Rule 3, page 84), and that the meaning is "he made the mantles green."

## CHAPTER IV.

### NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before its noun; as, *τρῖς ἄνθρωποι*, three men; *ἐν δευτέρῳ τόπῳ*, "in the second place."

2. Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordinal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns between the simple numeral and *δέκα*; as, *τρῖς ἑκατὼν δέκα ἵπποι*, thirteen horses; *ἄνθρωπος ἑκατὼν δέκατος*, the thirteenth horse.

3. *ἓν*, one; *δύο*, two; *πρῶτος*, first; and *τρίτος*, third, cause aspiration; as, *ἓν ἄνθρωπον*, one man; *δύο γυναῖκες*, two women; *ἄνθρωπος τρίτος*, "the third occasion."

4. The numerals *πέντε*, *οὐκ*, *ἑκατόν*, and *ἐκλείπει*, cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with *ρ*, in which case there is no change); as, *πέντε ἑβδομήκοντα*, "seven years;" *οὐκ ἑπτά*, "eight cows;" *ἑκατόν ἑννέα*, "nine rivers;" *ἐκλείπει δέκα ἄνθρωποι*, "ten men."

5. The numerals *τρῖς*, *τέταρτος*, *πέντε*, *ἕξ*, the ordinals (except *πρῶτος* and *τρίτος*: Rule 3 above), and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change; as, *τέταρτος ἑκατόν*, "four hundred."

6. *ἓν*, one, and all the multiples of ten, take their nouns in the singular number; as, *ἓν ἡμέραν*, one day; *πέντε ἑκατόν*, a hundred heads (lit. "a hundred head"); *τρῖς ἑκατόν*, "three times fifty heroes;" *ἑκατόν*, "a thousand women."

7. *Δύο*, two, takes both the article and the noun in the singular number; and if the noun be feminine, it will be in the dative form; as, *δύο ἄνθρωποι*, two men; *ἄνθρωποι δύο χεῖρες*, the two hands. (See next two rules).

8. If the noun following *δύο* be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as, *λήν αὐτοῦ δύο χεῖρες*, "the full of his two hands."

9. Although *δύο* takes the article and noun in the singular, yet the adjectives and pronouns referring to the noun will be in the plural, and the noun may also take the plural verb; as, *δοὗσαν ἑκατόν αὐτοῦ ἑκατόν*, "these two strong heroes went;" *ἑκατόν αὐτοῦ ἑκατόν*, "he took his two wide-socked, thick-handled spears, *they* having been bathed in the blood of serpents." Here the two adjectives and the pronoun referring to *ἑκατόν*, are plural.

## CHAPTER V.

## THE PRONOUN.

## I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as *íṛ maṛt aṇ beaṇ í*, she is a good woman; *íṛ maṛt aṇ fearṇ é*, he is a good man; *íṛ mórṇ ḡa daoṇe íad*, they are great men.

2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is third person singular masculine; as *dá m-béidíṛ fíṛ 'Eirneann aṇ baṛ ḡ-aḡaíḡ, ḡaḡ bu fearṇde dóbṇ é*, "if the men of Erin were against you, they would not be the better of *it*;" (here the pronoun *é* stands for the sentence).

3. The accusative forms of the personal pronouns are often used as nominatives: always with *íṛ*, (see Rule 18, page 90), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, page 91); and sometimes with other verbs; as, *máṛ maṛt ḡa leaḡa ríḡ, aṛ éíṛíṇ*, "if ye are the good physicians," says *he*."

## II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A possessive pronoun is never used without a noun.

In English there are distinct forms of the possessive pronouns which can stand without nouns (mine, thine, hers, &c.), but there are no forms corresponding to these in Irish.

2. The possessive pronouns precede their nouns; as *mó ḡaḡaṇ*, my mother; *a ḡaṛbaḡ*, their chariot.

3. The possessives *mó*, my; *dó*, thy; and *a*, his, aspirate the initials of their nouns; as *mó ceann*, my head; *dó cor*, thy foot; *a ḡearṇ*, his finger.

4. The possessive *a*, her, requires the initial of its noun in its primitive state (neither aspirated nor eclipsed), and if the initial be a vowel, it prefixes *h*; as *a ḡaḡaṇ*, her mother; *a h-aḡaṇ*, her father.

5. The possessives *aṛ*, our; *baṛ*, your; and *a*, their, eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except *r*, on which they exert no influence), and prefix *ḡ* to vowels; as *aṛ d-tíṛ*, our country; *baṛ m-ba*, your cows; *a ḡ-aḡaṇ*, their father.

6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see page 42,) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompounded state; as *dóm cṛoíde*, to my heart; *óna d-tíṛ*, from their country.

7. The manner of using the emphatic increase after the possessive pronouns has been already pointed out in Par. 3, page 42. For an additional Rule of possessives, see Rule 2, above.



## III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The relative follows its antecedent and precedes its verb; as, *aη τό α ρυβαλϑαρ*, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as, *aη λαοό α ημαρβ aη τ-αταό*, "the hero who slew the giant." To this the next rule is an exception.

3. When the relative α signifies "all that," (see Par. 2, page 43), it eclipses the initial of its verb; as, *α β-φυλ ό 5ηαλλιβ buδ deap*, "all that is from Galway southwards;" *do ηέη α η-δubηamaη*, "according to *what* we have said."

4. When the relative α is governed by a preposition, expressed or understood, and is followed immediately by a verb to which it is not the nominative, the initial of the verb (except ρ) is eclipsed; as, *α ρέ ηδ ημοηα δα δ-ταηηα α βάρ* "(the following) is the circumstance, indeed, *from which came* his death;" *aη βοηε ηα η-τδδρ*, "the tent in which they used to eat;" *α dubaηηc Fioηη ηο η-διoηηαδ (ρίτ) 3ιδ βέ ηόρ α η-διoηηαδ Oiaημαδ í*, "Fiun said that he would make (peace) in whatever manner Dearmaid would make it" (here the preposition *aηη* is understood: *3ιδ βέ ρόρ "aηη" α η-διoηηαδ Oiaημαδ í*, whatever the manner *in which* Dearmaid would make it. (See next rule.)

5. If, in the case stated in the last rule, the verb is in the past tense, with the particle ηο or do, the initial of the verb is not eclipsed, but aspirated (see Pars. 1 and 4, pages 50 and 51): as, *αιτ aη έηηc Oapa Oeap3*, "the place in which fell Dara Dearg."

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs it in the accusative (as in English); as, *aη τίη α 3ηαδυ3ίηη*, the country which I love.

7. As the relative has no inflection for case, the construction must determine whether the relative is the nominative to the verb which follows it, or is governed by it in the accusative; as, *aη caηa α 3ηαδυ3ίδ ηέ*, the friend whom I love; *aη caηa α 3ηαδυ3εap ηέ*, the friend who loves me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the nominative and in the accusative; as, *ό3λαοό do ηηηηηηηη ηίη ηηc Ρέηλ. έαηηc uaδ do 5ηac ηα 'Eηηηoηη*, "a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil (who) came from him to view Erin." *3η leabap ηο ρέηηcβ (Cambrenηηρ) do έuaηap3βαηλ 'Eηηηoηη*, "the book (which) Cambrensis wrote on the history of Erin."

9. The relative α is often disguised by combination with other words and particles, especially with ηο, the mark of the past tense; as, *aη τίη όη έαηηηα ηε*, "the country from which I came" (here *όη=ό α ηο*); *πλα3 léη ηαηβαδ ηοί ηίηε δ3ο3*, "a plague, by which were killed nine thou-and of them" (here *λέη=le α ηο*); *aη τίη δα δ-ταηηα ρέ*, the country to which he came (*δα=do α*); *la daη coηόηαδ aοηαό le ηι3 'Eηηe aηη*,

"a day on which was convoked an assembly by the king of Erin" (δαρ=do a no); ηί βεαζ λιονηρα αη ίλοινηεαρ πέηη μαη ειηηε, "I do not think it little what I have named as an *eric*." Άη=α no, in which α means "all that," (see Par. 3, page 43).

#### IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns follow their nouns or pronouns; as, αη πέαρ ηηη, "that man;" εηα η-έ ηηη? "who is that?"

Exception—When the verb ηη in any of its forms is understood; as, ρύδ βαι ζ-εηηδ, "yonder (is) your meal;" ηο αη λα, "this is the day."

2. If the noun be followed by one or more adjectives, the demonstrative pronoun comes last; as, εηα αη πέαρ βαλλαέ βηηη-βηηαέηιαέ ύδ? "Who is that fre. kled, sweet-worded man?"

#### V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. A interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as, εά β-ηυη μο λεαβαι? "where is my book?" εηα αη λαοέ ύδ αη ζυαλαηηηη ζηηηη? "who is that hero at the shoulder of Goll?"

This rule holds good even when the interrogative is governed by a preposition, *i.e.*, the preposition follows the interrogative that it governs; as, εαδ αη εά? "out of what (place art) thou?" ζο δε μαη εά εά? "how do you do?" (literally "like to what art thou?") επευδ πα αη ειηζεαβαι? "what for did ye rise?"

2. When uile precedes its noun, it means "every;" when it follows the noun it means "all;" as, ηλαν όη uile ζαλαη, "sound from every sickness;" δο βαεαδ αη επηε δαονα ζο η-αον οεεαη, "all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight."

There are occasional exceptions; as, δηονηζ αηηβέηοραέ ηη ηα η-uile ηυβαηηεβ, "people ignorant in *all* virtues" (in this passage, from Keating, uile means "all," though it precedes its noun).

## CHAPTER VI.

### THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as, δο ζηυαιη Φεηζυη, "Fergus went;" δο ελαηδεαδ ΰαε ζαηηαιδ, "Mac Garraidh was defeated." (See next Rule).

2. When the nominative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes the verb; and sometimes also in poetry, the nominative, even though a noun, precedes the verb; as, αη τε α ηυβαηπαη, "the person who will walk;" επευδ αεά αηηηο? "what is here?" Οεόηαιδεε ηίσηα, ζαη ηζιέ ζαη ηοη ηίσηαιδ,

α δ-τίη ῖ ῖ α η-δύτταρ, "perpetual exiles, without pause or rest, long-for their country and their native-home."

3. When the verb is transitive, *i.e.*, when it governs the accusative (see Rule 9, below), the usual order is verb, nominative, object; as, δο αἰζελ Κογχόβαν βόρατ, "Conchobhar addressed Borach;" δο ἴση Γράνηνη ἀη κορη, "Grainne filled the goblet."

4. But when the accusative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, the usual order is, pronoun (or accusative), verb, nominative; "as, ἀη λαοτ α ἐναηητ μέ ἀνέ, "the hero *whom I saw* yesterday;" καδ δεηη τῷ? "what sayest thou?"

5. When the verb τᾱ is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as, τᾱδ ηᾱ μευτᾱ πο-λοηητᾱτ, "the stars are very bright."

6. When the verb ηῖ, expressed or understood, is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as, βα βήηη α ἑλόν ηᾱ ceól ηᾱ η-έυη, "*her voice was sweeter* than the music of the birds;" ηἰ ῖαδα υᾱητ ἀη ᾱητ, "not (is) far from thee the place."

Exception—If the article is used before the predicate, or if the predicate is a proper name, the order is, verb, subject, predicate; as, ηῖ τῦρα ἀη τίη πο-αοἱβήηη, "thou art the delightful country;" ηῖ μέ Cíāη, mac Cāητε, "I am Cian, the son of Cainte;" ἀη τῦ ῖηηη? "art thou Finn?"

7. The only cases in which there is agreement between the verb and its nominative, are (1) when the nominative and verb are both third person singular; (2) when a noun or pronoun in third plural has a verb in third plural, in accordance with Par. 9, page 45.

It may be doubted whether (1) is a genuine case of agreement; and the general absence of agreement between verb and nominative is further exemplified in the following rule:—

8. When two or more nouns, whether singular or plural, joined by a conjunction, are nominatives to one verb, the verb has the third person singular form; as, δο ἑλῦαηῖ ὕεαη ᾱῖη ηᾱ δῖαοἰτᾱ μόνῖα, "Breas and the druids went forward."

9. A transitive verb governs the noun or pronoun which is the object of the action, in the accusative case; as, buaη ἑ, "strike him;" δο ἐυηεαδαν τῦατᾱ ὀε ὀαηηηη ceó δῖαοἰδεατᾱ η-α δ-τῖητᾱ ῖ ῖ ῖ, "the Tuatha de Dananns *put* a magical mist around themselves."

10. The initial of a verb in the infinitive mood is aspirated, unless the aspiration is prevented by some special influence.

11. The preposition *le* or *pe* before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification; as, (leabaiη eηe) ατᾱ ηε ḃ-ῖαητῖη η η-Ḃηηηη, "(other books) which are *to be seen* in Erin."

But in many such constructions the preposition expresses purpose, and the signification is active; as, *aḡur ʒo m-bʲd ollam̃ ne dénam̃ feille aṛn a céile*, "and that they are ready to do treachery on each other."

12. The infinitive, even without the preposition *le*, has often a passive signification; as, *Fiachra, mac Ailene, tʲʒearna Wuʒdop̃n, do m̃arbad̃*, "Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain" (lit. "Fiachra, &c., to slay"): *aḡur an fear nać tʲobnad̃ (an ćfor) rin uaiḡ, a ʲmón do buaiñ óna ćeañn de*, "and the man who would not pay that tribute from him, his nose to be cut off from his head."

13. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mood; as *da m̃bad̃ nać naćfad̃ clanna Wuop̃ne d'iaruaḡ na ʒ-caom̃ rin*, "if it were so that the Clann Morna had not come to seek those berries."

The following very important rule was first enunciated by O'Donovan, and is given here in his own words ("Irish Grammar," page 387):

14. "When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern the accusative, the sign *do* is never prefixed; as, *duabair̃ ré lʲom̃ dul ʒo Corcaḡ*, 'he told me to go to Cork.'"

15. If the noun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood follows the verb, it is in the genitive case; as, *tanʒadar̃ cablać m̃óru do déanam̃ coʒuḡ*, "a great fleet came to make war" (nom. *coʒad̃*. war: gen. *coʒuḡ*); *do m̃il-lead̃ ćloṛne ʲlʲr*, "to kill the children of Lir."

16. A noun or pronoun, which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood, often precedes the verb, and in this case it is (not in the genitive, as in the last rule, but) in the accusative; as, *aḡur ʲread̃ do ʒhoḡ, da ćuaḡle do ćur ʲd-tal̃m̃añ aḡur ćeañn an t-r̃ñaṛće do ćeañʒal da ʒać ćuaḡle ḡob̃, aḡur uball̃ do ćur aṛr̃ m̃ullać ćuaḡle aca*, "and it is what he used to do, two poles to put in the earth, and the end of a thread to tie to each pole of them, and an apple to put on the top of a pole of them."

17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as, *aʒ b̃ruaṛṇead̃ an óru*, "smelting the gold" (lit. "smelting of the gold"); *do bʲan ʒaod̃al ro aʒ m̃unaḡ r̃col*, "this Gaodhal was teaching schools" (lit. "teaching of schools"); *aʒ toćaḡle na tal̃m̃añ*, "digging the ground."

18. The verb *ʲr* in any of its forms, expressed or understood, takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as, *ʲr ʲćeadaḡad̃ ḡroṛne ne reañc̃ur*, "it is the opinion of some historians;" *ʲr m̃ic̃ ruḡ ʒo fʲl̃uṛṇead̃ ʲad̃*, "they are truly

sons of a king;" *aḡur fíapnaíḡear an mḡ cía h-íad féin*, "and the king asks who *they* (are)."

19. The verb *ír* is very often omitted, especially in negative and interrogative sentences, and in answer to questions; as, *beaḡa an rḡapnaíḡe fírinne*, "truth (is) the food of the historian;" *ceann Oḡiarḡuda Uí Oḡuibhne an ceann úd*, "that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O'Duibhne;" *cía tura? mḡrḡ Jollan*, "who (art) thou? I (am) Iollan;" *an fíorḡ rin?* "whether (is) that true?" *nḡ mḡrḡ*, "(it is) not I."

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as, *déanḡar é*, "it is done;" *buaíḡear íad*, "they are struck."

## CHAPTER VII.

### PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct inflection); as, *ḡaḡḡic ré ḡo Concaíḡ*, "he came *to Cork*," *aḡ coḡr an t-rléíḡe*, "*a the foot of the mountain*;" *airḡḡid cuíḡ do na h-úḡḡḡapnaíḡ*, "*some of the authors reckon*." (See next rule for exception).

2. The preposition *íḡrḡ* generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as, *íḡrḡ Corcaḡ aḡur Luimḡeacḡ*, "between Cork and Limerick;" *íḡrḡ na cóḡḡeadaíḡ*, "between the provinces."

3. The prepositions *anḡ*, *ḡo*, *íarḡ*, *mḡa*, *le* or *mḡe*, and *ḡarḡ*, take *r* before *anḡ*, the article, the *r* being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as, *anḡr an leabaḡ*, or *anḡ ran leabaḡ*, "in the book;" *leḡr an b-ḡearḡ*, "with the man." (See Par. 7, page 21).

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as, *do muḡ an tonaḡa mḡr a n-aḡaíḡ an ḡḡuic*, "he brought the tun with him *against the hill*;" *a b-ḡaḡḡuḡe b-ḡearḡ n-ḡirḡonḡ*, "*in presence of the men of Erin*;" *do ḡluair-eadaḡ clann Tuḡeannḡ mḡmpa d'ionḡruíḡe an ḡaḡa*, "the children of Tuireann went forwards *towards the battle*."

The following prepositions, *ḡum*, towards; *dála*, as to; *déḡr*, after; *íomḡḡura*, as to; *mḡearḡ* or *amḡearḡ*, amongst; *mḡéirḡ*, according to; and *tḡmḡíoll*, about, although having the form of simple prepositions, are in reality compound, and take their nouns in the genitive. (See end of Par 3, page 73).

As a compound preposition consists of a noun governed by a simple preposition, it is in reality the noun-part of the compound preposition that governs the noun in the genitive, in accord-

ance with Rule 1, page 79: thus, the expression above, **α η-αζαῖδ αν ἐνουϋ**, is literally "in the face of the hill," where **ἐνουϋ** is governed in the genitive by **αζαῖδ**, face; and so of the others.

5. The simple prepositions, except **δο**, **δε**, **ζαν**, and **ιδιη**, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as, **ὀη ζ-ενος ρη**, "from that hill;" **αζ αν η-βαῖλε ηα η-ηρε**, **ῖςαη**, "at the town of the island, in the west." (See page 22).

6. The simple prepositions generally cause aspiration when the article is not expressed; as, **αηη βαηη αν ἐπορηη**, "on the top of the tree;" **ὀ ηῖραῖβ ηα τεαηηαδ**, "from the ramparts of Tara."

Exception 1: **α** or **η**, **ιαη**, and **ζο** (when it means "with") cause eclipsis without the article; as, **α η-βαῖλε-ατᾱ-κῑατ**, "in Baile-atha-cliaith (Dublin);" **ιαη η-Οῖληηη**, "after the Deluge."

Exception 2: **αζ**, **λε**, and sometimes **ζο** cause no change in the initial, and **ζαν** may either aspirate or not; as, **ρῑαν λε Ὠαῖζ**, "farewell to (the river) Maigue;" "**ὀη τ-Σῑονηηη ρῑοη ζο ραηηηε**, "from the Shannon east to the sea."

7. When a simple preposition ending in a vowel comes before the possessive **α** (whether it signifies *his*, *her*, or *their*), the letter **η** is inserted between the vowels; as, **τῑε η-α βαῖαῖβ**, "*through his hands*;" **αν ῑα ζο η-α ῑαν τ-ρῑοηηε**, "the day *with its* abundant light."

Except after **δο** and **δε**; as, **ταβαηη ρέυη δ'α ᾱπαλλ**, "give grass to his horse;" **βαηη ζευζ δ'α ζ-ενανηη**, "take a branch from their tree."

Before any other word beginning with a vowel, the letter **η** is usually inserted after these prepositions; as, **δο ᾱαῖδ ρέ ζο η Ἀῑβαηη**, "*he went to Alban (Scotland)*."

## PART IV.

## I D I O M S.

AN idiom, in the sense in which it is used here, may be defined:—An expression that has acquired by usage a certain meaning, which becomes lost in a word-for-word translation into another language; so that in order to convey the true meaning in that other language, the form of expression must be changed.

Thus, “*ta an leabhar ag an duine*” is an idiom, for its sense is lost in the word-for-word translation, “the book is at the man;” and, in order to convey the true meaning, the English expression must be changed to “the man *has* the book.”

Idioms constitute one of the chief difficulties in learning any language; and the student is recommended to master this Part, in which the principal idioms of the Irish language are explained and illustrated.

## 1. The Infinitive governing Possessive Pronouns.

The infinitive of a transitive verb governs its object in the genitive (Syntax, Rule 15, page 90). When the object, instead of being a noun, is a personal pronoun, then, according to the analogy of the Rule quoted, it should be in the genitive case. But the genitive of a personal pronoun is a possessive pronoun; and possessive pronouns precede the words they refer to; so that the pronoun which represents the object of the action, is a possessive, and precedes the infinitive, influencing its initial as if it were a noun (see Syntax, page 86, Rules 3, 4, 5). This gives rise to idiomatic expressions like the following, which are of very frequent occurrence:—

	English.	Irish.	Contracted to.
To strike	me,	do mo bualadh,	dom' bualadh.
	thee,	do do bualadh,	dob' bualadh.
	him,	do a bualadh,	da bualadh.
	her,	do a bualadh,	da bualadh.
	us,	do an m-bualadh,	dan m-bualadh.
	you,	do bui m-bualadh,	(not contracted).
	them,	do a m-bualadh,	da m-bualadh.

These may be translated literally, “to my striking” “to their striking,” &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle: *ag a bualadh*, “striking him;” *ag a bualadh*, “striking her;” *ag an m-bualadh*, “striking us,” &c. In this construction the par-

tiple may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun:—*éaíne mian a maibéa dam féin*, “a desire to kill them, has come to me” (lit. “a desire of the killing of them,” or “of their killing.”)

## 2. Compound Prepositions governing Possessive Pronouns.

A compound preposition governs the genitive (Rule 4, page 91); and when the governed word is not a noun but a personal pronoun, this last becomes a possessive, and goes before the noun-part of the compound preposition, giving rise to idiomatic phrases, corresponding with those quoted in last Idiom. Example: *aíi rón*, for the sake of; *aíi a rón*, for his sake; *aíi buí rón*, for your sake, &c. *Do éuaíð Diairmaíð dá h-éir*, “Diarmaid went after her;” *éaíne tinnear oíua féin*, *áur ar a ríocht h-a h-diaíð*, “sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them.”

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example: *taíu aír*, “backwards;” *do éuaíð ré taíu a aír*, “he went backwards;” *do éuaíð rí taíu a h-aír*, “she went backwards;” *do éuaíð ríad taíu a h-aír*, “they went backwards,” &c.

## 3. To die.

“To die,” is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning “to find death:” the verb *faí*, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms; as, *an daíua bíafaíne dá éir ríh fuaíi Jíuá bár*, “the second year after that Irial *found death*,” *áur máí an aá a h-dan dam bár d’faíáil*, “and if it be here that it is in fate for me death to find” (i.e., “that it is fated for me to die.”)

There is, however, a single verb *d’éu*, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms:—*A deíu cuíð do na reanaíðdaíab zup ab a h-leann da loca fuaíi Naomh Padruíð bár; bíod zo h-abraíð d’uín oíe zupab an h-árdmaá d’éu ré*, “some of the old authors say that it is in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another party say that it is in Armagh he died.”

## 4. Nominative Absolute.

What is called the nominative absolute in English is expressed in Irish by the preposition *aíi* (on), or *íar* (after), placed before the participle, and the preposition *do* (to) before the noun; which will be understood from the following examples:—*aíi m-beíð aá faáa do Chormac á a b-beíðíom*, “Cormac having been a long time watching them” (lit. “on being a long time to Cormac a-watching of them”); *áur aíi m-beíð olláin don luínz*, “and the ship being ready” (lit. “and on being ready to the ship”); *áur aíi h-dul a luínz dóib*, “and they having gone



into a ship:" (lit. "and on going into a ship to them"): *ian* *m-beit tpean ir an tñu dóib*, "they having grown strong in the country" (lit. "after being strong in the country to them.")

### 5. To have no help for a thing.

The Irish phrase corresponding to this is "to have no strength (*neart*) on a thing:" the *having* being expressed in accordance with Idiom 34. *Ní b-fuyl neart ašam aju an ñd rñ*, "I have no help for that thing—I cannot help that" (lit. "there is to me no strength on that thing"). *Ašur dubaite Šmañne nač naib neart aice féñ aju*, "and Grainne said that she had no help for it" (or "could not help it," "could not have prevented it"). Sometimes *léišeas*, remedy or cure, is used in the same way as *neart*.

### 6. To cause a thing to be done.

To cause a thing to be done, to have it done, to see that it is done, is often expressed in Irish by *do ču* (or *do čabait*) *fa deaia*, "to put (or bring, or give,) under notice." *Ašur no ču 2uiočad fa ñ-deaia űñ ĩñre Tuile do ču fúb*, "and Miodbach caused the mould (or soil) of ĩnis Tuile to be placed under you;" *do nuš (ñiš) breac bair aju an m-breiteañ*, *ašur čuš fa deaia a čuočad*, "(the king), passed sentence of death on the judge, and had him hanged" ("put under notice him to hang," or "his hanging").

### 7. Number of Individuals of which a company is composed.

The number of individuals of which any collection of persons or things is made up, is often inserted, in the nominative form, in a narrative sentence, without any syntactical connection with the rest of the sentence. *Ašur čañic ĩñ mōññe añamāñac, čaošac čañpčeač, ó Šhioč buibb Deññš*, "and ĩr set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from Šhee Bove Berg" (*i.e.*, with chariots); *ašur čañic buibb Deññš, naoi čead fitead, da ñ-joññruñše*; "and Bove Derg came, twenty-nine hundred men, towards them."

This is like the English:—"The Duke began his march next morning, 20,000 strong."

### 8. Passive Verbs used impersonally.

A passive verb is often used impersonally; as, *šabra čušajñ amac, ašur ñ lañfan fuļñušad on*, "come forth to us, and no one will dare to wound thee:" (literally, "and it will not be dared [to put] wounding on thee").

This form of expression is of very frequent occurrence in the older narrative writings:—thus, instead of "they advance; they plunge into the (river) Crond," the writer expresses himself in this way:—"it is advanced; it is plunged into the Crond."

### 9. Nominatives before Infinitives and Participles.

Instead of the usual assertive construction, consisting of a verb with its nominative (noun or pronoun), the following construction is often adopted:—the verb is put in the infinitive or participial form, and the subject (whether noun or personal pronoun) is placed before it, the pronoun being placed in the accusative form (but whether the noun is nominative or accusative cannot be determined, as there is no distinction of form); as, *ir amlaíð b'í Naisi agus Deirdre, agus an cenncaimh eatarra, agus iad as imhuict uirthi*, "it is in this manner Naisi and Deirdre were (seated), and the Cenncaimh (a chess board) between them, *and they playing on it*;" *ir amlaíð do b'í Cobhtach, agus é as fearu-íad*, "it is thus Cobhtach was, *and he pining away*;" *cuiríof rceula go blaíthuigh é féin do beir an rí*, "he sends word to Blaid, *he himself to be there*" (i.e., "that he himself was there").

This form of expression is often adopted, even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as, *do cuir (an cú) a ceann a n-úacht Ogharmuda agus é ina codla*, "(the hound) put her head in the breast of Diarmaid, *and he in his sleep*."

### 10. One person meeting another.

"Donall met Fergus" is often expressed in Irish in the following way:—*Do carad Fergus ari Ooiñall*; literally, "Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall." *Do carad Aoibell na Craige léite oiriñh*, "we met Eevel of Craglea" (lit. "Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us"): *cia carfaíde oim a'c r'uaíð-bean*, "whom should I meet but the fair woman" ("who should be met on me").

The same idea is expressed by the verb *tarla*, happened: *agus tarla oílad oiriú ari m-boíad*, "and they met a youth on the moor" (lit. "and a youth happened on [or to] them"); *cuilluid go Slíab Mísh go tarla baíba go n-a d'raoicib oiriú ari*, "they travel to Slieve Mish, until they met Baíba with her druids there" ("until Baíba with her druids happened on [or to] them there").

### 11. Although: Although not.

*Siñ go*, or *siñ gur*, has two opposite meanings which can only be distinguished by the general sense of the passage: sometimes "although" (or "although that"), and sometimes "although not."

Although:—*a Fhinn, an órzan. siñ gur foisre mo íad duitre ná do Ogharmuid ó'Ohuíne*, "'O Finn,' says Oscar, 'although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O'Duibhne.'"

Although not:—*do béim comhairle maíð d'ib, a Chlaínn Uiríð, siñ go n-déantar lib í*, "I shall give a good counsel to

you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you;" Յւոն շար չեարիժ մի՞նչ ահ րի՞ն, "*although* that proceeding would *not* be the business of a woman."

## 12. To be able.

To be able to do a thing is expressed in different ways. The most usual is by phrases of the type, իր բեյժիր լե, "it is possible with;" as, իր բեյժիր կոյմ ա ծեօնած, "I can do it" (lit. "it is possible with me to do it"). See Idiom 1.

Another, and more idiomatic way, is by the verb ելլիմ, "I come," in its various moods and tenses; and with this verb "I can do," or "I am able to do," is expressed by "it comes with me to do;" as, մի՞նչ ծ-ելլեա՞ծ ըր ահ չարլլեա՞ծ ծ'ամար, "unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it would come with him the hag to strike"); ա՛տ որ ծոլէ բլղի լիղ լիղ մար ա՛յծ աւ ծ-ելլի բեյղի՞ծ շեղալե լիղ բ-բա՞ծ-դար, աշար ղա՞ծ ծ-ելլ լիղ լիղ լիղ ղա՞ծ ծ'ոյ, "and we think more grievous than that, how our three champions are bound in our presence, and that we are not able to free them;" ղի շարլլեա՞նն ալա՞ծ օրմարիղ ղա՞ծ ծ-ելլ կոյմ ա լոյմար, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not able to bear."

Sometimes the verb ելլի or իր is used instead of ելլիմ, and also the preposition աջ instead of լե; as, օ ղա՞ծ կոյմ ծալ օն շ-օնթա-բարլլե րօ, "since I cannot escape from this danger" ("since it is not with me to go from this danger": here իր is understood); օ ղա՞ծ բ-բարլլ ծալ ալձ աշար, "since I cannot escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him"): here ելլի and աջ are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34.

## 13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word լեա՛ծ, half; լեա՛ծ-օր, "one foot" (lit. "half-foot"). In this compound the word լեա՛ծ is used adjectively, so that լեա՛ծ-օր means, not half *of* a foot, but a *half-foot* (i.e., a foot which is itself a half, i.e., half of a pair). So also լեա՛ծ-իւլ, "one eye;" լեա՛ծ-տա՞ծ, "one side," &c. Եր աղլալձ ծօ ել ահ լիլ լիղ աշար լեա՛ծ-լաղ աղլլի՞ն աղլլ, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of silver on him."

## 14. To be alone.

The word առնար, which the dictionaries now interpret as meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun like շարլլի, շարլլեալ, &c. (page 37), and meant "one person;" and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present application:--ծօ իլալ մե ա'ղ առնար, "I walked alone" (lit. "I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as one person"); ծօ իլալ շա՛ն ա՞ռնար, "thou walkedst alone;" ծօ իլալ իլ ղ-ա

h-aonair, "she walked alone," &c.; an aonair real a ríubál b'ídear, "alone, of a time, walking I was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is with himself:" \**tá mé l'om féin*, "I am alone ("I am with myself"); *tá tú leat féin*, "thou art alone;" *tá siad leo féin*, "they are alone;" *tá mo mháthair 'n-a codlad*, *a'ur m'ire l'om féin*, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."

### 15. One thing given for another.

When you give or take, sell or buy, one thing for another, it is expressed in Irish by saying you give it &c., *on* that other, the preposition *a'ur* being used. *Oo cúg ré tuis ba a'ur an z-capall riu*, "he gave three cows for that horse;" *a'ur 'Eime n'í 'neó-raínn c'ia h-í*, "for Erin I would not tell who she is" (*'neó-raínn* for *ínnéó-raínn*, see page 54).

In this sense, the preposition *a'ur* is set before the noun of price; *do céannuigear an bó bán riu a'ur ré púint*, "I bought that white cow for six pounds;" *n'í h-iongha, an Cormac, óir ír mair an luac tuzar u'irne*, "'No wonder,' says Cormac, 'for good is the price I gave for it.'"

### 16. Debt.

The fact that Donall owes Fergus money, or that Donall is under any obligation to pay money to Fergus, is expressed by saying, "Fergus has money on Donall," the preposition *a'ur* being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of "having" being expressed by *tá* and *a'z* as in Idiom 34. *Tá tuis púint a'z Fergus a'ur Oonighall*, "Donall owes three pounds to Fergus;" *tá bean eile a neocaitl a b'fuit a'ci coróin a'ur*, "there is another woman in Youghal to whom he owes a crown" ("to whom is a crown on him"); *í amhlaid do b'í an n'í z ro. a'ur c'íor cáin móir t'iom a'z Fomoriai z an Tuatha Dé Danann ne n-a l'inn*, "it is how this king was, and (that) the Fomorians had a great heavy tribute and rule over the Tuatha De Dananns during his time" ("a great heavy tribute and rule was with the Fomorians on the Tuatha De Dananns").

### 17. Asking, entreating, &c.

To ask, request, entreat, or demand of a person, is expressed by "to ask, &c., *on* that person:" *íair a'ur O'ha na z'ára riu*, "ask of God those graces."

### 18. Sensation, suffering, &c.

That a person is hungry, thirsty, cold, afraid, sick, &c., is expressed in Irish by saying that hunger, thirst, cold, fear, sickness, &c., is *on* him, the preposition *a'ur* being used: *tá fuact o'rim* ("cold is on me"), "I am cold;" *na b'íod eagla o'it* ("let not fear be on thee"), "be not afraid;" *do b'í cap'it móir a'ur Sheagan*

("great thirst was on John"), "John was very thirsty;" *cad é ríḡ ort?* ("what is that on thee?") "what ails you?" *A cúirle mḡ cúirle, cneud í an ḡruaim ríḡ ort?* "O pulse of my heart, what is that frown on thee?"

**19.** One person entertaining feelings (of love, hatred, &c.) towards another.

That Donall entertains certain feelings towards Fergus is expressed by saying that Donall *has* such feelings *on* Fergus; the preposition *an* being used before "Fergus," and the act of "having" being expressed by *tá* and *aḡ*, as in Idiom 34:—*ní mḡ an cion no bá aḡ Aonghus ortra ina an cion no bá aḡ muih-tin Aonghusa an mḡac an neachtaine, so naib formad mḡon an t-ácaim fá n-a cionn ríḡ*, "not greater was the affection Aonghus felt for thee than the affection the people of Aonghus felt for the son of the steward, so that thy father felt great jealousy on that account" (lit. "not greater was the affection which was with Aonghus on thee, . . . so that great jealousy was on thy father on the head of that:" see Idiom 32).

Where the agent is not specified, a similar form of expression is retained: you are loved, is expressed by love is on you; you are esteemed, by estimation is on you, &c.; *tá meaf aḡur cion mḡon aim Ųrcan* ("great esteem and love are on Oscar"), "Oscar is greatly *esteemed and loved*."

**20.** To know: to know a person.

To know is usually expressed in Irish by the phrase knowledge is with me, I have knowledge; and to know a person by "to have or to give knowledge on a person:" "*aḡur an b-fuil a fíor aḡad féin, a Fhinn?*" "ní b-fuil' an Fíonn?" "do you know it, O Finn?" "I do not," says Finn;" (lit. "is its knowledge with you, O Finn?" "It is not," says Finn): *an a'l leat fíor d'fáḡail?* "do you wish to know?" ("is it a desire with you knowledge to get?"; *bíod a fíor aḡat, a leuḡtḡin*, "know, O reader" ("be it knowledge with thee, O reader"): (strangers are seen coming towards Finn and his party), *no fíapnaib Fíonn do cāc an d-tuḡadai atne ortca*, "Finn asked of the others did they know them" (lit. "did they put knowledge on tuem"); *aḡur tuḡairre atne ortm*, "and thou knewest me" (lit. "and thou didst put knowledge on me").

**21.** To part from: to separate from.

To separate from a person is expressed in Irish by "to separate *with* a person," the preposition *le* or *ne* being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, "I parted with him:" *rcapadai féin aḡur Ųiarmaid ne n-a cēile*, "they themselves and Diarmaid separated from each other;" *do rcap rē*

muin, "he separated from us;" rcar Diarmuid, "Oscar separated from Diarmaid;" do rcar mu, "he separated from him;" a5 Cuiriac Cill-dara do rcar le zuað mo croidhe, "at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the 'love of my heart.'"

## 22. However great, however good, however brave, &c.

Da placed before some abstract nouns gives a meaning which, though it is well understood in practical use, has puzzled grammarians to analyse and explain, and which will be best understood by a few examples. From the adjective *álainn*, fine or beautiful, is formed *áinne* or *aille*, fineness, beauty; and *da áinne* or *da aille*, means "however fine," "how fine soever." Examples:—*Ní b-fuyl pioñúr dá theud, nac d-tuillid*, "there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve;" *an tpeap zeir, zan comhna5 aoineñiu dá tpeirí ariu talhah d'obað*, "the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty;" *deahah na diaðal dá tpeire lañ*, "demon or devil, however mighty of hand."

## 23. Both one and another: both these and those.

Both, in such phrases as "both men and women," is often expressed in Irish by the preposition *idru*, between; as, *bainneð Dia faram diob an zac rocar d'a d-tuz doib idru ceill*, *ceadfaduib, azur conac fao5alta*, "God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them, *between* understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:" *cuiz mñle idru fearuib azur mñuib*, "five thousand, between men and women (*i.e.*, both men and women, or reckoning men and women)."

## 24. To overtake.

To overtake a person is often expressed by "to bear on a person," the verb *beir*, bear, being used with the preposition *air*. Examples:—*Fa5bam an tulaç ro an eagla zo m-beirfead Æon5ur an bhno5a oiriuññ*, "let us leave this hill, for fear that Aonghus of the Brugh would overtake us;" *leahur air a louz zo mñmhñeac iad do'n Bhñmhah, zo mu5 oñia a5 Solcoid*, "he follows them on their track directly to Munster, so that he overtook them at Solchoid:" *zo nac fñzfeidír an ronn rñ nò zo m-beirfead Wapera Sñde oñia*, "that they might not leave that territory till the fairy cavalcade should overtake them:" *fanfadra leat ar an laçairi ro no zo m-beiriu oññ añí*, "I will wait for thee at this place till thou overtake me again:" *zac aon air a m-bearfahññ*, "every one whom I would overtake" ("every one on whom I would bear").

**25. To win a game on a person.**

To win a game on a person is expressed by "to put a game on him:" *aḡur do ʔóḡ Óirín an fear rín, aḡur no cúir an cluicé ar Fhionn*, "and Oisín moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn:" *aḡur nǵ nuḡamar an báire ar a céile*, "and we did not win the goal on each other" (*i.e.*, "neither of us won the goal on the other.")

**26. To think long, short, well of, ill of: to think hot, cold, hateful, &c.**

Such phrases as "it seemed long to him," "he thought it long," are expressed by the verb *ir* and the preposition *le*: *ir faḡa liom*, ("it is long with me"), "it seems long to me," "I think it long." *aḡur do bo faḡa le na bráicirib do bí brian uacá*, "and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them" ("it was long with his brothers," &c.): *ir olc liom ar bean mios*, "we think bad of what has happened to thee" ("it is evil with us:" *ar*=*a* *no*, and *a* means "all that:" see page 43): *cúizimrǵ naḡ ionmhuir leatra me féir*, "I understand that thou dost not love me" ("that not beloved with thee am I myself").

Observe the difference in meaning conveyed by the two prepositions *le* and *do*: *ir maic é do'n b-fear rín*, "it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not): *ir maic é leir an b-fear rín*, "that man thinks it advantageous" (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—*ba maic liom ríubail, acḡ nǵor maic ḡam é*, "I wished to walk, but it was not good for me."

**27. To wish for: to like: to be glad of: to prefer.**

After the same manner, a desire, wish, liking for, &c., is expressed by such words as *mian*, desire; *aic*, pleasure; *ail*, will or pleasure &c.: *ir ail liom rǵor d'faḡail*, "I wish to know" ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"): *do cúirfeir féir rǵil an caic rín ad h-uic a n-ionad do rǵil, ar fear dǵob: do b'aic liom rín, ar an dǵoirreoir*, "'I would put the eye of that cat in thy lap in place of thy eye,' says a man of them. 'I would like that,' says the door-keeper."

The word *feair*, better, is used in the same way to express preference: *ir feair liom do ḡeairbrácair na cūra*, "I prefer thy brother to thyself:" "I would rather have thy brother than thyself" (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c.); *do b'feair le bǵizid leabair maic na airḡeac*, "Brigid would prefer a good book to money" (lit. "a good book would be better with Brigid," &c.). The following example shows the application of both *mian* and *feair*:—*Nǵ h-é ir mian leir an uḡḡar (nǵ mo, nǵ h-é ir mian liom-ra) tú do breuḡan; . . . acḡ ir é dob' feair leir rín (aḡur liom-ra) do cǵoide do feal*

buḡaδ: "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (zu do b̄reuzan) . . . but it is what he would prefer (and I also,) to possess thy heart."

Feāru followed by le expresses mental preference as shown above: but feāru followed by do is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. Ir feāru domra ahoir, ari luḡ, f̄ior na h-eanca úd do éabairt daoib. Ir feāru éeana, ari iadran, "'it is *better for me* now,' says Lugh, 'a knowledge of that *eric* (fine) to give you.' 'It is better indeed,' say they."

## 28. To think little of—much of—to grudge.

Similar to the preceding is the use of the words beaḡ and mōru (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—Ir mōru liom ari luac r̄i, "I think that price large" ("that price is large with me"): óru dá m-beiḡ mac aḡuine iona f̄uḡe iompa, n̄oru beaḡ leo do éúru d̄ari maib̄ad, "for if (even) a child of us would be sitting ('in his sitting': see Idiom 42) before them, they would not deem it (too) little cause to kill us" (lit. "it would not be with them a small [thing] for a cause to kill us:" for d̄ari maib̄ad: see Idiom 1): d̄ari mo b̄iuaḡari, ari Naíri, n̄i beḡ liḡe r̄i uair, "'by my word,' says Naisi, 'we do not think that small from thee.'"

The two expressions ir mōru le and n̄i beaḡ le ("it is much with, it is not little with) are used to express the idea of unwillingness, or grudging": ir mōru liom aon p̄iḡḡi do tabairt dó, "I think it much—I grudge—to give one penny to him." The very same idea is expressed by n̄i beaḡ liom aon p̄iḡḡi, &c., "I think it not little—I grudge—one penny, I think one penny enough," &c. The two reverse expressions (n̄i mōru le—ir beaḡ le) are used to express willingness—not grudging &c.: n̄i mōru liom na t̄ri ba r̄o do éabairt dó, "I do not think it much—I am quite willing—I do not grudge—to give him these three cows;" which might also be expressed by saying, ir beaḡ liom, &c.—"I think it little—I would give more, I would have more, I would want more; I am willing—I do not grudge" &c.—do beir̄m̄id ari m-b̄iuaḡari, ari r̄iad, naḡ beaḡ liḡe a m-beur̄am ḡo F̄ionn d̄sib, "'we give our word,' said they, 'we think it not small—we grudge—what (a = all that,—see page 43) we shall bring of them to Finn.'" (See Mr. Standish O'Grady's note, in the "Pursuit of Diarmaid and Grainne," page 140.)

When mōru and beaḡ are used with the preposition do, they give the idea of enough or not enough *for* a person: n̄oru beaḡ do (maib̄ad b̄ari n̄-aiḡneac) maí eir̄ic uair̄e, "(the killing of your fathers) is not small to him—is enough for him—should suffice for him—as an *eric* (fine) from you;" n̄oru beaḡ duir̄ a ba do b̄reiḡ ó F̄hionn, "it was not little for you—it was enough for you—to take away his cows from Finn."



## 29. Woe to.

Ír maíne don b-ear rín, "woe to that man"; a maíne do'n drunng zóirear do'n olc maíe, "woe to those who call evil good." Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, "Ír maíne nac n-déanann comhairle dea-z-mhá, "woe [to him] who doeth not the counsel of a good wife" (lit. "it is woe who doeth not," &c.).

## 30. So .. as: as .. as.

When these "correspondent conjunctions" are expressed in Irish, the second one is usually translated either by *azur*, "and," or by *le*, "with:" *azur a dubairt nua an tan do b'od, a nac comhairleacta azur zo lionfad a mheir an iod*, "and 'he said to her when his son should be so grown (comhairleacta) as that his finger would fill the ring" (lit. "so grown *and* that his finger," &c.); *do bí a pleaz comhairleamhar le mol muillinn*, "his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill" (lit. "as thick *with*.")

*Azur* follows *amhlaid* or *amhla* (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows *cóh*; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to "viz.:" *ar amhlaid do fuair Naisi acar Déirdre, acar an Cennchaemh eamha*, "it is thus he found Naisi and Deirdre, *and* the *Cenn-chaemh* (a kind of chess-board) between them." (Meaning, "it was thus he found, viz., with the *Cenn-chaemh* between them.")

## 31. Every other day: every second day: every alternate day.

Phrases like these are often expressed in Irish by the indefinite pronoun *zac*, followed by the preposition *le* or *ne*. *Zac le Comhac az dul cum ceampoll*, "going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday; *na tri m'zce rin do Thua-chaib de Danann do bí i b-elaicior 'Eireann zac ne m-blaiaigh*, "these three kings of the Tuatha De Danann were in the sovereignty of Erin every other year" (*i.e.*, each for a year).

## 32. The Head.

The word for *head* is used in Irish, as it is in most languages, in a great variety of idiomatic phrases. Some have been already noticed among the compound prepositions; and these and others will be understood from the following examples:—

*A z-ceann bliadhna*, "at the end of a year;" *do bí ríad a z-ceann na falcce*, "they were at the end of the field." *A dubairt Naisi le h-Ardan dul ari ceann Fergur*, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus" ("to go on the head of Fergus"): *fillre ari a z-ceann*, "turn thou back for them" ("on their head"). *O nac liom dul óh z-contabairt ro am ceann*, "since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me"

(am ceann, "in my head" = before me). Naċpad ad ceann, a Fhinn, aġur a ġ-ceann na Féinne, "I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni" ("in thy head and in the head of the Feni"). Acaġ beirid buaid acaġ beirid acaġ da ceann, "and bear ye victory and blessing on its account" (da ceann, "from its head"). Taru ceann ġur ġaol aġ toiceaċ naċ ġaib baolal aġ biċ aġ féin, "although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (i.e., of) himself" (taru ceann ġur, "over the head that" = although). Ir ionġna duirre aġ ġnaċ ġin do ċabaġit daġra taru ceann Fhinn, aġ Oġaġmaid "it is a wonder for thee to give that love to me instead of (to) Finn," says Diarmaid" (taru ceann Fhinn, "over the head of Finn," in preference to Finn, instead of Finn).

### 33. A proper noun with the genitive of a noun of office.\*

When a proper noun is followed by a noun in the genitive signifying a profession, office, trade, or calling, the resulting phrase has a curious idiomatic meaning.

Seaġan aġ ġiġeadóira, which is, word for word, "John of the weaver," means in reality "John (the son, son-in-law, servant, or some other close connection) of the weaver;" Seaġan na baġn-ċreabaġe, "John (the son, &c.) of the widow."

If, while the proper name is in the nominative, the second noun is also in the nominative, the meaning is quite different, the second noun being then simply in apposition to the first;" thus Ferġur aġ ġaolġ (gen.) is "Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward."

Suppose, now, you have to express in Irish such a phrase as "the house of Fergus, the steward," in which the proper name must be in the genitive: as the two nouns are in apposition, the second, according to a rule of Syntax (Rule 6, p. 80,) should also be in the genitive: ċeaċ Fheirġur aġ ġaolġ. But here is an ambiguity; for, according to the present idiom, this expression would also mean, "the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward." To avoid this ambiguity, a disagreement in case is allowed in such expressions, between the two nouns, when they are in apposition. Thus, "the house of Fergus, the steward" is ċeaċ Fheirġur ġaolġ (in which Fheirġur is genitive and ġaolġ nominative); whereas ċeaċ Fheirġur aġ ġaolġ is understood to mean "the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward." So in Dr. MacHale's translation of Homer, the first two lines are rendered:—

Urut Ċaolġ ġeirġ, óġ ġeairġda, a'ġ buaġ ġearġ,  
Ċaolġ ġic Ĥeirġ, aġ ġairġiġdeaċ ċeirġġeaċ ġairġ.

"The wrath of Achilles sing, O heavenly virgin, and his enduring

\* The substance of this explanation and the illustrative examples have been taken from an interesting Essay on the present state of the Irish language in Munster, written and sent to the Royal Irish Academy by Mr. John Fleming, of Rathgormack.

anger, of Achilles, son of Peleus, *the fiery fierce hero.*" Here the last noun  $\zeta\alpha\iota\tau\zeta\iota\delta\epsilon\alpha\acute{\varsigma}$ , with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while  $\mathcal{A}\epsilon\upsilon\iota\lambda$ , with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, Syntax,  $\text{bean Sheagair an físeadóir}$ , accordingly, is not "the wife of John the weaver," but "the wife of John (son &c.) of the weaver;" the wife of John the weaver, would be expressed by  $\text{bean Sheagair físeadóir}$ .

### 34. Possession.

There is no verb in Irish corresponding to the English verb "to have" as expressing possession; and the sentence "the man has a book," is expressed in Irish by the verb  $\tau\acute{\alpha}$  and the preposition  $\alpha\zeta$ , in this form,  $\tau\acute{\alpha}$  leabair  $\alpha\zeta$  an duine, "a book is at (or with) the man;"  $\tau\acute{\alpha}$  airgead agam ("money is with me"), "I have money;"  $\text{cia bé } \alpha\zeta \text{ b-fuill airgead}$  ("whoever with whom is money"), "whoever has money."  $\text{Ní féidir le duine an n-íde ná m-beidead aige do tabairt uaid, agur ní b-fuill domharcácht agumra}$ , "it is impossible for a man to give away what he does not himself possess, and I do not possess immortality" (word-for-word: "it is not possible for a man the thing which would not be with him to give from him, and not is immortality with myself").  $\text{Oo aigele Conchubair borac acas do fíafraí } \delta\acute{\epsilon} \text{ an raib fleo ollam aige } \delta\acute{o}$ , "Conchobhar addressed Borach and inquired of him whether he had a feast prepared for him" (lit. "whether a feast was ready with him [*i.e.* Borach] for him [*i.e.*, Conchobhar.]).

The use of pronouns in this idiom sometimes gives rise to further idiomatic complications.  $\text{Cia aguirne } \alpha\zeta \text{ a b-fuill an fíurirne?}$  "Which of us has the truth?" This, is word for word, "Which of us with whom is the truth?" and the interrogative appears without any government or other syntactical connection. Some good authorities believe that the preposition  $\alpha\zeta$  in this construction governs not only the relative  $\alpha$ , but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative  $\text{cia}$ .  $\text{Ta bean eile a n-eócaill a b-fuill aici coróir ari}$ , "there is another woman in Youghal who has a crown on him" (*i.e.*, to whom he owes a crown: *Iaion* 16) Here, also, there is an apparent redundancy, the act of "having" being expressed doubly, namely, both by the relative  $\alpha$  before  $\text{b-fuill}$ , and by  $\text{aici}$ ; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition  $\alpha\zeta$  of  $\text{aici}$ . The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner: —  $\text{Ta bean eile a n-eócaill } \alpha\zeta \text{ a b-fuill coróir ari}$ . The last example exactly resembles the English "there is a man in Dublin whom I owe a pound to him;" and perhaps it would be better to consider it, like the English sentence, merely as bad grammar, which is to be avoided by using a different form of expression in the manner shown. The apparent redundancy of the first example, which is from a good authority, cannot, however, be got rid of in this way. So also in,  $\text{cia leir an teac rin}$  ("who

owns that house"), the *le* of *leir* would appear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and also the interrogative *cja*.

### 35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb *ir* and the preposition *le*, with; *ir leatra an teac*, "the house belongs to thee" (lit. "it is with thee the house"); *ir lem' atair na ba rin*, "those cows belong to my father" ("it is with my father those cows"); *cja léir na ba rin*, "who owns those cows?" ("who with him [are] those cows?") *Oir ir le neac éirigh do Thuača De Danann na muca*, "for the pigs belong to some person of the Tuatha De Danann." (A wizard holds a golden branch in his hand, and King Cormac asks him) *an leat féir an éirioib rin?* "Does that branch belong to thyself?"

Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in the following sentence:—*Tá airgead go leór aḡad, ac̄t n̄ leat féir é*, "thou hast plenty of money, but it does not belong to thyself."

### 36. Wanting a thing.

The idea of wanting a thing, including a wish to get it, is usually expressed by the verb *tá* and the preposition *ó*, from; *tá leabair uair*, "I want a book" (lit., "a book is from me;" *cneud atá uair?* "What dost thou want?"

### 37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

Each of the three prepositional pronouns, *aḡairn*, *aḡalb*, *aca*, has two different meanings, which are always easily distinguished by the context:—

1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: *Do bí leabair aca*, "they had books."

2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words denoting a part: *ḡac fear aḡairn*, "each man *of us*;" *no eirig̃ an daia fear acoran do déanair an éleira*, "the second man *of them* (acoran, "of themselves") arose to perform the feat:" *cja aḡairne aḡ a b-fuyl an éirighne*, *air Fionn*, "which *of us* has the truth," says Finn" (*aḡ a b-fuyl*, "with whom is"—"has:" see Idiom 34).

### 38. To give a name.

To give a name to a thing is often expressed in Irish by *to put a name on it*: *mair go tuḡtar da banuačac air bhécoill aḡur air Ohannan*, "as (the name) 'two ladies' was put on Bechoill and Danann: *i.e.*, as they "were called 'two ladies.'" *ḡair go d-tuḡ cleair air an ḡ-cleair rin*, "as he called that feat 'a feat:"" (lit. "as that he put [the name] 'feat' on that feat").

Sometimes, also, to give such and such a name to a thing is expressed by "to say such and such a name with a thing:" *ḡor-da-*

ḡaileac nṛ a nṁḡḡean lṁmneac anṁ, "Ros-da-shaileach, which is called Limerick now" (lit. "Ros-da-shaileach with which is said 'Limerick' now').

### 39. De after comparatives.

The prepositional pronoun *de*, "of it," is often prefixed to comparatives, giving rise to some idiomatic phrases. *Aḡur ḡion ḡo b-ḡuḡ cuḡ aḡuḡḡ ḡo ḡaṁbaḡ ḡiaṁḡaḡa, ḡḡ ḡḡḡḡ ḡo, ḡeubḡ (Aongus) aḡ ḡḡḡḡḡ uḡḡ,* "and although we have no part in killing Diarmaid, Aongus would not *the more* receive the truth from us" (here *ḡḡḡḡ* is *de* added to *ḡḡ*, the comparative of *ḡḡḡ*, great: for *ḡion ḡo* = "although not:" see Idiom 11). *ḡṛ ḡuraḡḡe ḡ'Fḡionḡ aṁ loṁḡḡa leaḡaḡaṁ, aḡ eaḡṁa beḡḡ aḡaḡḡ,* "it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses" (*ḡuraḡḡe* = *de* after *ḡura*, comparative of *ḡurur*, easy): *i.e.*, "our having the horses makes it easier for Finn," &c.

### 40. "A man of great strength."

"A man of great strength," is expressed by the Irish *ḡear ḡṛ ḡḡṛ ḡearṁ*, which, translated word for word, is "a man (who) is great strength:" the words *ḡḡṛ ḡearṁ* being in the nominative, and not in the genitive, as might be expected from the English "*of* great strength." This idiom is extremely common in Irish, the verb *ḡṛ* in some of its forms being always used; and, when translating it, remember that the Irish words—though in the nominative case—convey the exact sense of the genitive with "*of*" in English, and must be rendered accordingly. *Nḡ ḡaḡḡ a ḡ-ḡḡḡaṁṁṁṁ nṛ ḡearṁ ba ḡḡ ḡṛ aḡur aṁḡḡeḡ ḡḡa ḡiaṁḡaḡḡ,* "there was not at the same time with him a man who had more gold and silver than Diarmaid" (lit. "a man [who] was greater gold and silver," *i.e.*, "a man who was *of* greater gold and silver.") *ḡo ḡearṁcaṛ aḡ beḡḡ ba ḡiaḡḡa cṁuḡ,* "I saw a lady (of) bright shape;" *ḡalaḡ ba ḡearṁṁ bḡḡ aḡur ḡeoḡ,* "a land (of) the best food and drink;" *ḡṛḡḡ ba ḡṛeunḡ ḡearṁ aṛ luḡ,* "Oisín of mighty strength and vigor."

Sometimes the preposition *ḡo* (with) is used instead of the verb: *as, ḡearṁ ḡo ḡḡṛ ḡearṁ*, "a man *with* great strength," *i.e.*, "a man of great strength."

### 41. A wish.

"I wish I had such and such a thing," is often expressed in Irish by some such form of phrase as, "Alas, that I have not got it!" the word *ḡaḡ* being generally used as the negative particle. *Aṛ cṁuaḡḡ ḡaḡ ḡeaṁa 'ḡ ḡaḡṁ aḡum!* "I wish I had the shepherd's pet!" (Here *aṛ cṁuaḡḡ*, "it is pity" = "alas!" *aḡum* is used to denote possession, with its verb understood—Idiom 34: and the word-for-word translation is "it is pity not the pet of the shepherd with me.") *A ḡḡa ḡaḡ ḡé aṁ' aḡaḡḡḡḡ,* "I wish I were an apple" ("O God, I not an apple"—or "in my apple.")

# APPENDIX.

## ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES OF DECLENSIONS.

### FIRST DECLENSION.

*Երեւոյ, a trout.*

Singular.	Plural.
N. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.
G. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.
D. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.
V. ա երեւոյ.	ա երեւոյ.

### SECOND DECLENSION.

*Կոյ, a foot.*

N. կոյ.	կոյ.
G. կոյ.	կոյ.
D. կոյ.	կոյ.

### THIRD DECLENSION.

*Բլաւաճախ, a weaver ; masc.*

N. բլաւաճախ.	բլաւաճախ.
G. բլաւաճախ.	բլաւաճախ.
D. բլաւաճախ.	բլաւաճախ.

*Աճախ, a father ; masc.*

N. աճախ.	աճախ, աճախ.
G. աճախ.	աճախ.

D. աճախ.	աճախ.
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(Զաւաճախ, a mother, and Երեւոյ or Երեւոյ, a brother, are declined in the same way.)

*Երեւոյ, a year ; fem.*

N. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.
G. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.
D. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.

*Անուն, a name.*

N. անուն.	անուն.
G. անուն.	անուն.
D. անուն.	անուն.

### FOURTH DECLENSION.

*Երեւոյ, a fire.*

Singular.	Plural.
N. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.
G. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.
D. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.

*Երեւոյ, a little bird.*

N. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.
G. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.
D. երեւոյ.	երեւոյ.

### FIFTH DECLENSION.

*Լաւաճախ, a married couple.*

N. Լաւաճախ.	Լաւաճախ.
G. Լաւաճախ.	Լաւաճախ.
D. Լաւաճախ.	Լաւաճախ.

### IRREGULAR NOUNS.

*Յա, a spear.*

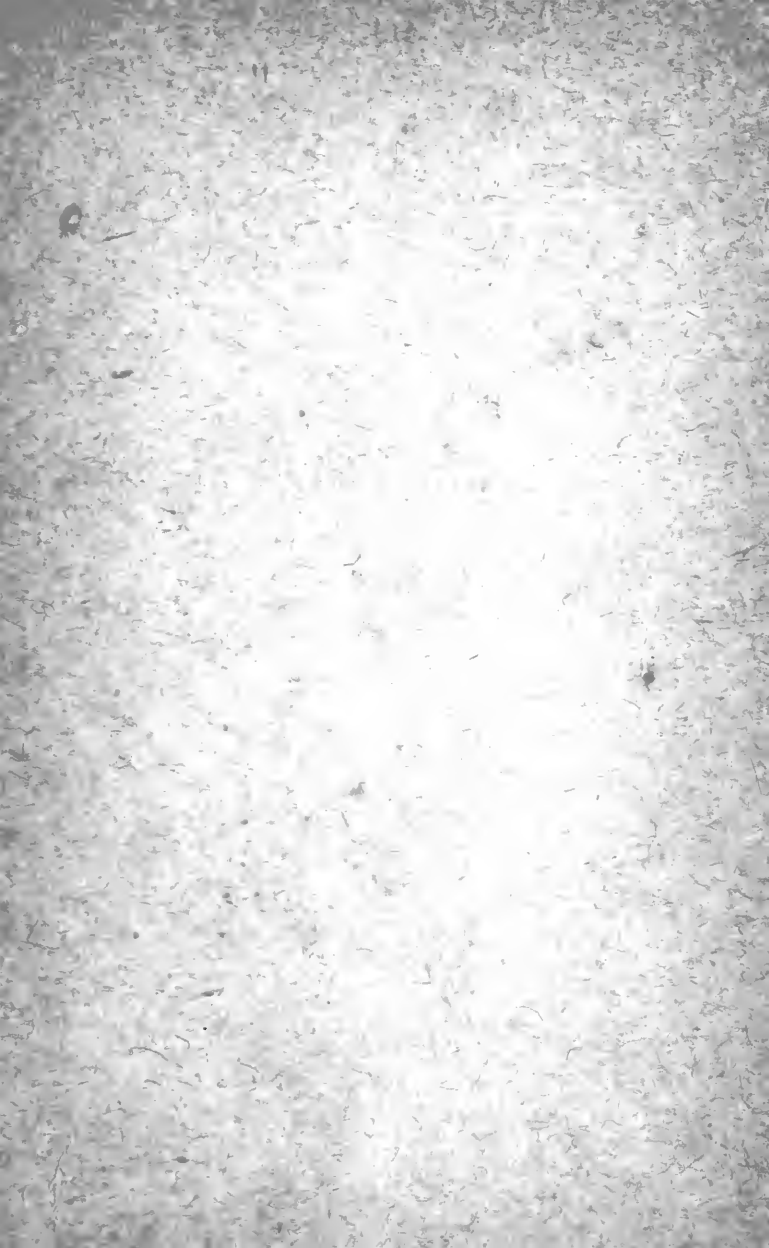
N. Յա, Յա.	Յա, Յա.
G. Յա, Յա.	Յա, Յա.
D. Յա, Յա.	Յա, Յա.

*Երեւոյ, a hut, a sheepfold.*

N. Երեւոյ.	Երեւոյ, Երեւոյ.
G. Երեւոյ.	Երեւոյ.
D. Երեւոյ.	Երեւոյ.
V. ա Երեւոյ.	ա Երեւոյ

*Տաւ, a mountain.*

N. տաւ.	տաւ.
G. տաւ.	տաւ.
D. տաւ.	տաւ.



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